DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 094 204 CE 001 726

AUTHOR	Woolschlager, Ruth B., Ed.
TITLE	Business Education for the Seventies.
INSTITUTION	Illinois State Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield. Div. of Vocational and Technical Education.
PUB DATE	72
NOTE	302p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.75 HC-$15.00 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	*Business Education; Business Education Teachers; Career Education; College Preparation; Consumer Education; *Course Descriptions; *Curriculum Development; Curriculum Planning; *Educational Innovation; Elementary Grades; *Guides; Interdisciplinary Approach; Job Skills; Post Secondary Education; Relevance (Education); Secondary Grades; Vocational Counseling
IDENTIFIERS	Task Force Approach

ABSTRACT

The publication attempts to provide a guide for administrators, counselors, business teachers, and teacher educators which will be helping in working together to build a flexible, relevant curriculum for today's youth. It attempts to encourage a balance among courses in business education and courses which provide the college preparatory or the terminal student with a marketable skill. The need is emphasized for a rational, cooperative task force approach among departments and various educational levels to improve the total educational program. The book is divided into four parts; the first contains articles dealing with social change and educational innovation; the second develops the task force approach at every level from elementary through postsecondary and articulates between levels for business role concept. Part three comprises two-thirds of the book, presenting courses guidelines for five business career objectives, personal use skills, basic business and economic education, and cooperative and distributive programs. The final section discusses the business teacher as a professional. No attempt has been made to prescribe a given program; the focus suggests that effective teaching goes beyond curriculum. (AJ)

ED 094204

BUSINESS EDUCATION FOR THE SEVENTIES

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction
Vocational and Technical Education Division
Springfield, Illinois

14

(1972)

(Printed by Authority of the State of Illinois)

THE PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

Dr. Ruth B. Woolschlager, Editor
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb

Advisory Committee

Dr. Gerald F. Bober, Consultant
Bureau of Business Education
Chicago Public Schools

Miss Beverly J. Hackett
Leyden High Schools
Franklin Park

Dr. Thomas B. Martin
Illinois State University
Normal

Mrs. Cleta Whitacre
Marion Senior High School
Marion

Editorial Committee

Miss Gladys Bahr
DePaul University
Chicago

Mrs. Violet Bimm
Carl Sandburg High School
Orland Park

Miss Ethel Harmeling
Glenbrook South High School
Glenview

Dr. Ross Lowe
Western Illinois University
Macomb

CONTENTS

I. ACTION FOR THE SEVENTIES 6

- Changes in Human Values 7
- Student-Centered Instruction Via Behavioral Objectives 8
- Teaching Strategies for Differentiated Goals 9
- Education for Economic Literacy 15
- Education for Employment 16
- Programs for Youth with Special Needs or Learning Disabilities 19
- Curricular and Time Patterns for Learning 34
- Accountability: Educating Students for Business as it Now Exists 40

II. A TASK FORCE APPROACH 44

- Business Education at All Levels 45
- Emerging Programs in the:
  - Elementary School 45
  - Junior High School 47
  - Secondary School and Area Vocational Center 48
  - Community College 50
  - Four-Year Collegiate Institution 52
  - Private Business School 53
- Articulation Between Levels in Education for Business 54
- Role Concept:
  - The Business Teacher 56
  - The Counselor and/or Vocational Counselor 56
  - The District Vocational Director 57
  - The School Administrator 58

III. COURSE GUIDELINES 60

Overview

BASIC BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC EDUCATION 61

- Business I 65
- Business II 67
- Consumer Education 80
- Business Law 81
- Economics 88

PERSONAL-USE SKILLS 94

- Personal Typewriting 95
- Notetaking 97

STENOGRAPHIC CAREER OBJECTIVE 102

- Typewriting First Year 104
- Typewriting Second Year 113

- Shorthand First Year 117
- Shorthand Second Year 129
- Stenographic Office Practice 138
- Machine Shorthand 144

ACCOUNTING CAREER OBJECTIVE 146
- Business Mathematics 148
- Accounting First Year 152
- Integration of Accounting Principles and Automated Data Processing Procedures in Accounting First Year 159
- Accounting Second Year 176

DATA PROCESSING CAREER OBJECTIVE 177
- Introduction to Data Processing 179
- Data Processing Applications 185
- Introduction to Computer Programming 189
- Unit Record Equipment 193

CLERICAL CAREER OBJECTIVE 200
- Clerical Office Procedures 204
- Office Machines 210
- Business Communications 217

DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS CAREER OBJECTIVE 224
- Marketing and Distributive Education 224

COOPERATIVE VOCATIONAL OFFICE EDUCATION AND DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION PROGRAMS 253

IV. THE BUSINESS TEACHER AS A PROFESSIONAL 273
- Creative Classroom Instruction 273
- Encouragement of Student Organizations 274
- Involvement in Professional Activities 275
- Accrediting and Certifying Organizations 279
- Pre-Service Business Teacher Preparation 285
- Inservice Business Teacher Education 292
- Image of Business Education in the School and Local Community 297

PREFACE

Never before in the history of this nation has it been as vital to achieve a balance in the high school curriculum between true liberal education, consumer education and vocational education as it is today.

This bulletin attempts to encourage such a balance. There are courses in business education which are suited to all students in their effort to achieve economic literacy. At the same time, the bulletin describes courses which provide the college preparatory or the terminal student with a marketable skill. The need is emphasized for a rational, cooperative task force approach among departments and various educational levels to improve the total educational program.

This publication attempts to provide a guide for administrators, counselors, business teachers and teacher educators which will be helpful in working together to build a flexible, relevant curriculum for youth *now*.

Certain schools may call courses by different titles or offer a curriculum different than these guidelines describe. No attempt has been made here to prescribe a given program. The focus of this publication is to suggest that effective teaching goes beyond curriculum per se, and that learning depends on the degree of creativity, the appropriateness of method, and the professionalism of the teaching staff.

Business Education for the Seventies was initiated and developed under the auspices of the Illinois Business Education Association.

Michael J. Bakalis

MICHAEL J. BAKALIS
Superintendent

ACTION FOR THE SEVENTIES

Miss Beverly J. Hackett
Advisory Committee Member
Leyden High Schools
Franklin Park

Writers

Mr. Donald Blume
McHenry High School, West
McHenry

Miss Linda Calmese
St. Teresa Academy
East St. Louis

Mrs. Cynthia Davies
Lanphier High School
Springfield

Dr. Franklin H. Dye
Chicago State College
Chicago

Dr. Donald Frost
Curriculum Director
Leyden High Schools
Northlake

Mr. Lee Gerber
Freeport Senior High School
Freeport

Mr. Chester Johnston
Vocational Technical Institute
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale

Mr. James N. Kleindl
Freeport Junior High
Freeport

Dr. Vaughnie J. Lindsay
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville

Mr. Robert Miller
Consultant
Bureau of Business Education
Chicago Public Schools

Miss Dorothy Munger
Champaign Central High School
Champaign

Mr. William E. Reynolds
Division of Vocational and
Technical Education
Springfield

Dr. Robert Schultheis
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville

Mrs. Mary Vaughn
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville

Mr. Jerry L. Wiseman
Lake Park High School
Roselle

CHANGES IN HUMAN VALUES

Economic Growth and Security—The drive toward economic growth and security began in America more than two hundred years ago. As an individual and a collective commitment, this drive gave focus to our political, economic, sociological, and educational efforts. The resulting scientific and technological developments have led to a business-oriented society characterized by high achievement in the production of wealth and the creation of power. In the process, the human factor has been considered largely in terms of its contributions to these achievements.

Social and Ecological Costs—During the 1960's, awareness spread that the same processes that create wealth and power often are those processes that produce social ills: dehumanization and depersonalization of the individual by large institutions and mechanized processes, duplicity in advertising, pollution, and rapid destruction of natural resources. As social costs and ecological havoc became more obvious, large sectors of American society questioned the validity of the pragmatic test for technological development — if we can do it, we should; if it works, it is good. Critics noted that technology can be misused, power can be abused, and that short-term expediency is not always indicative of or compatible with long-term well-being.

Alterations in American Goals — Few would advocate a return to the stark simplicities and hardships of the past. The first task, then, becomes one of setting new goals that combine the advantages derived from productive and managerial genius with more critical assessment of human and ecological effects, both immediate and long term. The second task is determining possible means through which the goals may be attained. Carefully defined values are essential to both ends and means determinations.

Values basic to future decisions are much more complex than the former work ethic with its roots in the gross national product. Beliefs that give direction and meaning must include social consciousness and social responsibility for others as well as for oneself. Making such values viable is neither simple nor obvious. For example, much of the present discontent appears to stem from organization; yet a highly interdependent society cannot function without organization. Discontent also stems from cultural diversities; yet our domestic concept of association is being superseded by international interactions involving even greater diversities.

Translation to Classroom Practices — To translate these changes in human values to classroom practice, teachers and learners must share in the exploration of issues, recognize partial solutions, consider all suggestions of the group, understand experimental frames of reference, withhold final judgments, eschew both verbal abuse and dogmatism, and reward scholastic effort. To succeed, these practices must be carried out in an atmosphere that attempts to balance affective and cognitive elements, and combines the best from the recent educational concentration on objectivity with the best from the humanistic focus of the 1930's and 1940's.

Committed to reason and social usefulness, business education can become a tremendous force, for few are the learners who do not share in its influence.

STUDENT-CENTERED INSTRUCTION VIA BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

The mass of knowledge available to mankind is accelerating at such a rate that it will triple in the next ten years. This makes it imperative that educators become extremely selective about the content and attitudes deemed important for the leaders of tomorrow.

Effective instruction must begin with well-thought-out and selective objectives, which will not only indicate the ultimate goal, but the means for achieving it as well. Schools today can no longer make education a guessing game. Young people have demonstrated that they will not tolerate it, nor should they tolerate it. They want and deserve to know the objectives of a course and what they must do to demonstrate their achievement of those objectives. Once unit objectives are stated, then and only then do teachers have a logical basis for selecting meaningful content, appropriate materials, and sound instructional methods.

Teachers must be aware of certain characteristics of objectives that make them measurable in behavioral terms. Characteristics of well-constructed behavioral objectives are:

a. The use of words that are not ambiguous but which indicate specific action; for example, "recite," "identify," "construct" rather than "know," "learn," and "understand."

b. The definition of the student's behavior by imposition of stated conditions under which he must show his mastery of the objective.

c. The limitation of time in which the action must be performed.

d. The statement of *minimum acceptable performance.*

Two examples of business course behavioral objectives are:

1) The student, given a 514 reproducer, will insert properly 25 cards and run the cards through the machine in a maximum of three minutes with no operational errors.

2) The student, having taken a 3-minute dictation on practiced material at 60 words a minute, will transcribe it with 95% accuracy.

It is extremely important that copies of the objectives for each unit be made available to the students. As the unit progresses, each activity should be related to the objective that is being reinforced.

Well-stated objectives properly utilized will result in higher achievement by students; measurement of learning is based on the degree to which students have met the objectives.

TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR DIFFERENTIATED GOALS

Legislation enacted in 1963 and amended in 1968 has had a marked effect on vocationally oriented programs in the high schools. The importance that the Federal Government has placed upon occupational training is evidenced by the financial support provided and has caused business educators, as well as those in other vocational fields, to re-evaluate their offerings. This evaluation has frequently led to extensive revision and improvement of existing programs and the addition of others.

In this age of advanced technology, teachers are expected to have a high degree of mastery of subject matter and a facility for motivating students to optimum achievement. Information can be transmitted effectively by machines, but the teacher is the catalyst that is required to bring about the reactions that result in an integration of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Continuous change, experimentation, and innovation in all phases of business operations and at all levels of the business education program will be imperative during the 1970's.

The teaching strategies listed are guidelines which may be used separately or combined to suit individual programs. Teachers must take into consideration space limitations, budget specifications, and personnel limitations as the local situation demands.

The approaches offered for consideration are team teaching, individualized instruction, independent study, simulation, and cooperative education. Block or rotation scheduling, modular or flexible scheduling, programmed learning, and the contract method can be utilized in developing these approaches.

Team Teaching — A majority of those involved in team teaching praise the method and cite advantages to teachers and to students. Cooperation, planning, and evaluation based upon behaviorally stated objectives are critical factors in the success of a team approach. This success depends upon the effectiveness and attitudes of each team member. Successful attainment of the objectives of the program will involve the maximum utilization of each instructor's specialized talents, interests, training, time and energy, the improvement of the quality of teaching, a program which permits instruction to be geared to individual abilities, and the development of creativity, adaptability, and responsibility in students. The proper use of this strategy demands planning time as a team; otherwise the situation degenerates to one of "multiple teachers."

Team teaching advantages include: (1) the opportunity to take advantage of the best abilities and qualifications of each team member; (2) more efficient utilization of school resources and physical plant; and (3) emphasis on student responsibility in learning. Time is provided for the team members to plan, coordinate, and evaluate. The opportunity to work in a team situation provides an excellent professional experience for the beginning teacher as well as the experienced teacher.

Team teaching is a concept of education which must be tailored to individual situations. The utilization of individual study, small-group study, and large-group study is determined by the material to be presented.

While this procedure helps to resolve the problem of increasing numbers of students, this should not be a major factor in the decision to inaugurate the program.

Individualized Instruction — Individualized instruction requires self-selection and self-direction by the learner while the instructor serves as a consultant and guide. The role of the instructor will continue to change as more technological advances occur and as multi-media materials become available.

A major problem confronting teachers is the planning of a program that will benefit each individual student rather than a program geared to the "typical" or "average" student. Individualized instruction is not necessarily different for each learner, but must be appropriate according to individual needs.

Too, concern should be given to the loss of communication between the individual, his instructor, and other class members that occurs more readily in individualized instruction than in the more traditional classroom.

Another problem concerns the assistance given students in the establishment of individual goals — those he can achieve in the immediate future. In developing programs to serve individual needs, it is necessary to have a personal knowledge of student abilities, attitudes, and interest; achievement test scores, information concerning previous courses; and an individual conference with the student to determine the appropriate study area. It is the teacher's responsibility to provide whatever learning materials the student needs and to offer encouragemnt and advice without reflecting his personal bias. This technique helps to assure the student that he is, indeed, being offered a program designed specifically for him.

One of the advantages of the individualized instruction approach is that the student is permitted to select from a broadly-circumscribed course content those areas that are of interest to him. The teacher serves as an advisor and consultant in this selection and as an assistant when a desire for help is indicated — whether it be assistance in finding materials or resource persons, assistance in adjustment to his method of study, or assistance in interpretation. If it is apparent to the teacher that many of the students will have difficulty in selection of study areas, an overview of the total program may be presented. This serves to acquaint the students with the possibilities available and to give them a background upon which to base their decisions. Some flexibility should be provided to allow for changing needs and interests.

Evaluation is undertaken cooperatively by the student and teacher, in light of previously agreed upon objectives. The student who has been instrumental in selecting his course of study and setting his goals is well prepared for examination and judgment of his achievement.

Independent Study — As students are observed working in an individualized instruction pattern and in an independent study pattern, the differences between the two processes may not be readily apparent. The variation occurs in the planning and decision-making stages.

Both patterns are based on the concept that learning activities consist of four dimensions:

---

[1] From information supplied by Richard J. Rodine, Director, Service and Demonstration Center, Lakeview High School, Decatur, Illinois, June 25, 1971.

1. The problem dimension—what is to be done
2. The process dimension—how it is to be done
3. The product dimension—what end results will occur
4. Evaluation—how well and to what extent objectives have been achieved.

In individualized instruction, the student determines what the problem will be from a list generated by the teacher and the class. In independent study, the student is solely responsible for surveying the subject matter area and for determining the problem. He does not have a predetermined list of alternatives from which to choose.

In terms of process, in independent study the student determines how to solve the problem—although the teacher may, in fact, help him solve it. In individualized instruction, the student and the teacher cooperatively determine what means will be used to arrive at a solution. Figure 1 demonstrates the "product mix" involved.

In both methods of study, the student decides what the nature of the product will be — how he will be different or what he will have when he is finished.

Evaluation in independent study may be the sole responsibility of the student; he develops criteria for evaluation and judges to what extent his goals have been achieved. In individualized instruction the student and teacher establish evaluative criteria cooperatively.

Programmed Instruction — Success in the use of programmed instruction as a teaching device depends upon the degree of self-discipline of the student. It presupposes the ability of the student to read and understand fairly simple instructions and to execute them in the order in which they are presented.

The essential elements of programmed instruction are:

(1) An ordered sequence of stimulus items,

(2) Progression in small steps or frames,

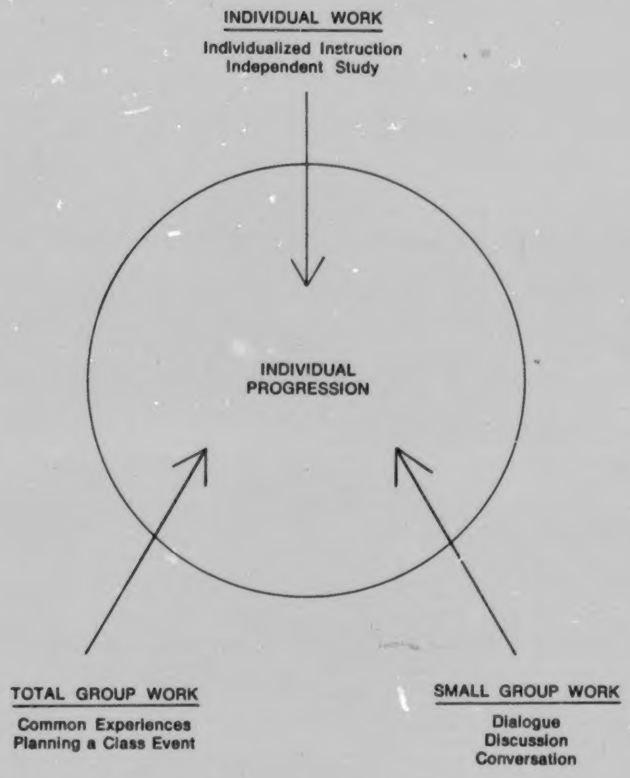
(3) Response of the student to each item in a specified manner,

(4) Reinforcement of positive or negative responses by immediate confirmation,

(5) Reversion to previously stated principle following negative response.

DIFFERENTIATED GOALS

The "Product Mix" in Individual Progression


INDIVIDUAL WORK
Individualized Instruction
Independent Study
INDIVIDUAL PROGRESSION
TOTAL GROUP WORK
Common Experiences
Planning a Class Event
SMALL GROUP WORK
Dialogue
Discussion
Conversation

Courtesy of Barry VanHook, Elgin High School, Elgin, Illinois

This type of instruction lends itself to a variety of purposes, such as remedial instruction, enrichment activities, and independent study projects.

Materials for programmed instruction, which can be utilized either with or without machines, are available for many of the subject matter areas included in business education. The Alpha Phi chapter of Delta Pi Epsilon at Northern Illinois University has produced a series of consumer education packets that are an excellent example of this strategy. These materials were published originally by the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, but are no longer available. There is a possibility that the Delta Pi Epsilon national office will reprint the series.

Simulation—An extremely effective teaching device is one which simulates a realistic situation so that students have an opportunity to experience a total unit concept. Simulation can be used successfully in many business areas, but particularly in office and sales occupations, because it is relatively easy to simulate the operations of an office or store.

The basic steps in setting up a simulated office project include:[2]

(1) The establishment of objectives, guidelines, requirements, and time span,

(2) The selection of the type of business to be simulated, based on a survey of area businesses,

(3) An inventory of equipment and facilities that are available or can be made available,

(4) A definition of basic routines for each position, followed by student selection for the positions,

(5) The preparation of positional flow diagrams, job description manuals, time schedules, contingency procedures to control work flow, and debriefing plans to control accuracy of methods,

(6) Information dissemination to acquaint students, cooperating businesses, staff members, and other interested or involved persons with the project,

(7) The establishment of evaluative criteria and procedures.

While this teaching device requires a great deal of planning and preparation, many positive values accrue that justify the time expended. Among these are:

---

[2] From information supplied by Rose Anne Davis, Roxana High School, Roxana, Illinois, June, 1971.

(1) The interaction between students as they are exposed to the human elements requisite to job success,

(2) The utilization of equipment and facilities in a situation more nearly resembling existing office conditions than is generally provided in the typical office practice class,

(3) The rapport which is established with school and community as the project is planned and implemented,

(4) The opportunity for the students to observe and function in a setting that establishes relationship of tasks and procedures.

Cooperative Education—Cooperative education is an instructional plan between school and community which incorporates the teaching strategies of team teaching and individualized insrtuction. The basic feature of the plan is the correlation of learning experiences gained through supervised employment in the community (the training station) and vocational instruction in the school (the related learnings class).

This strategy represents the ultimate in vocational training inasmuch as student interests serve as guideposts for instruction, and course content is determined by actual employment conditions.

Although business educators tend to perceive cooperative training in terms of distributive education and office occupations, cooperative programs in many other areas are feasible and should be considered in an effort to serve a wider variety of student needs in a constructive way.

Description of cooperative programs appears in greater detail in another section of the bulletin.

EDUCATION FOR ECONOMIC LITERACY

The economic problem of yesterday, today, and tomorrow remains how man can use his limited resources to satisfy his unlimited wants. This problem occurs with young people as they try to make their allowances and/or earnings meet their recreational needs. It continues as they establish households and need to pay rent or mortgages out of earnings. The persistent economic problem continues throughout life.

The dollar votes of the consumer for goods and services determine which resources shall be used, how much shall be used, how these goods and services shall be produced, and how they will be shared. Through economic understanding consumers and workers can cast their votes for the best decisions for themselves, business and government.

These decisions are increasingly complex. Therefore, it is the obligation of the secondary school and especially the business education department to develop economic understandings. All secondary school graduates should be economically literate. Business education courses contribute in varying degrees to meeting this objective.

EDUCATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

Educators cannot hide behind a facade of educational objectives that are not supported by responsible action. Taxpayers, parents, and students are demanding more from education. They want results. They are not content with last year's promises and last year's successes. They demand, "What can you do for us now?" Educators are being held accountable.

Career education personnel need to be increasingly sensitive to their responsibility to bring individuals to a specified level of competency in the shortest time possible. They need to re-think career education programs. They must recognize those changes which are developing in society, seek to understand the forces behind them, predict the consequences of those changes, and either adjust to them or find ways to modify them.

Program Criteria—The criteria used in evaluating career education programs can serve as standards for program development. One important criterion is the number of persons served. About 75 per cent of all students need training for employment requiring less than a baccalaureate degree. Therefore, a wide range of programs must be provided to serve all types of students: the potential drop-out, the disadvantaged student, the handicapped student, the individual who wants an entry-level skill, and the student who has goals identified with technical training. Also needed are programs for adults who want to learn new skills or upgrade their present skills.

A second criterion concerns the relevancy of the occupations for which training is provided. Present and projected labor market needs, rather than available equipment and available teacher expertise within the local educational system, should justify the existence of programs.

A third criterion involves the nature of the educational experience. What is taught must be directed toward employment. Course content, work experiences, and ancillary activities should develop the competencies employers seek. Business and industry can advise educators on their needs.

Provision of educational experiences that meet the needs of the individual is a fourth criterion. Consideration must be given to the skills, knowledge, and attitudes of each individual when he enrolls in a program. He should then be provided with the experiences he needs to develop his potential. Programs should be structured to permit open entry and open-end leaving. The sacredness of courses based on quarters, semesters and nine-month periods cannot be justified; what is important to each individual is the mastery of his educational objectives.

A fifth criterion is the application of innovative ideas which have been developed through research. The results of research are often lost because they are not disseminated. But even when those results are disseminated, they are often lost because too many educators lack the time and knowledge to effectively plan for change, and many avoid change because of insecurity.

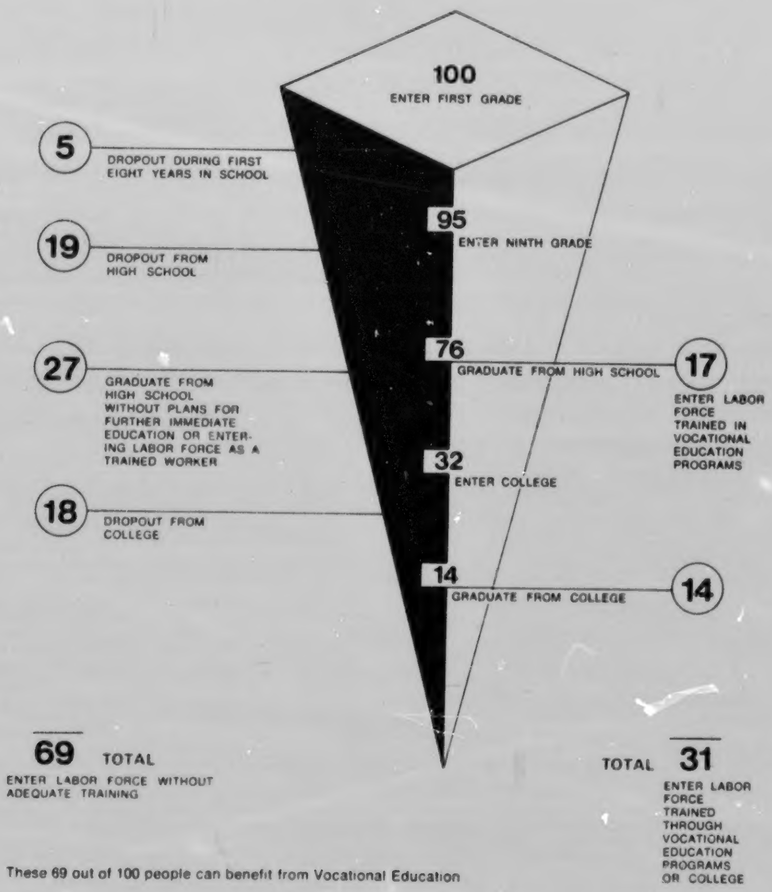
Articulation of educational experiences is another important criterion. Greater coordination is needed, starting at the elementary level and continuing through the secondary, post-secondary, and adult levels. An overall program of career education includes occupational information, orientation, and experiences. One segment of the program serves as a springboard for the next segment. Articulation of program is the responsibility of local education agencies.

A realistic program of evaluation is based on the placement and performance of former students. This process requires feedback from employers on the strengths and weaknesses of the products of career education programs, and it requires feedback from former students on their satisfactions and their unmet needs.

The Role of All Educators—Educating for employment is the role of career education personnel. However, it is also the role of *all* educators. The academic educator can utilize the occupational goals of students in teaching the 3 R's, the arts, and the sciences. Working together, all educators mold the finished product and help shape the future of society.

The need for vocational education can easily be seen from the information given in the chart on the following page.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION



These 69 out of 100 people can benefit from Vocational Education

Data provided by U.S. Office of Education—1970

PROGRAMS FOR YOUTH WITH SPECIAL NEEDS OR LEARNING DISABILITIES

Traditionally, high school business education programs have been directed toward preparing students for entry employment in office and distributive positions. There is a disadvantaged segment of our school population, however, whose successful completion of these existing programs is precluded because of mental handicaps, physical handicaps, or cultural differences. These students need special understanding, guidance, and teaching techniques in *all* high schools by *all* business education teachers. They are youth with special needs.

The Vocational Amendment of 1968 included in the discussion of persons with special learning needs, the handicapped, and identified this group as including persons who are mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, crippled, or who have other health impairments that require special education and related services. The term "disadvantaged persons" refers to people who have academic, socio-economic, cultural, and other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in vocational programs designed for persons without such handicaps, and who, for that reason, require specially designed educational programs and related services. The term "disadvantaged," according to Public Law 90-576, includes persons whose needs for such programs or services result from poverty, neglect, delinquency, or cultural or linguistic isolation from the community at large.

The State of Illinois Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation has established these criteria in reimbursing vocational programs for disadvantaged students. Students must:

(1) Be average for grade by at least two years.

(2) Have difficulty communicating in writing or speaking.

(3) Be frequently absent from work or school without apparent causes.

(4) Be presently or frequently unemployed.

(5) Have a reading level at least two grades below grade placement.

(6) Come from families dependent on social agencies for support or need.

(7) Be physically or mentally handicapped and subject to one or more of the kinds of disadvantages previously listed.

(8) Exhibit characteristics which clearly indicate educational, social, cultural, economic, and other similar disadvantages.

Youth with special needs are classified into a variety of categories by writers in this area. For the purpose of this bulletin, youth with special needs will be limited to those who

(1) were nurtured in a culture different from the typical, white, middle-class society in America.

(2) are slow learners because of low intelligence or poor reading skills.

(3) are physically handicapped.

By passing the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the subsequent amendments of 1968, Congress made it clear that it expects vocational education to play a very important role in solving the socio-economic problems of persons with special learning needs. In order to do this effectively, one of the first changes must be in the philosophy of business education. Until recently, business education was geared to meet the needs of students who conformed; who matched the background, attitudes, and speech that were assumed for the majority of students; and who had the desire and motivation to succeed.

In the past, very few teacher training institutions offered either skills or information useful in teaching youth with special needs, except in certain specific areas. If business education is to be meaningful to the disadvantaged, the training and retraining of teachers in this area must be as comprehensive as possible. Teachers armed only with a desire to help find it difficult to cope with disadvantaged students. The instructor must be equipped by business teacher educators with specialized instruction in the teaching of disadvantaged students. Recent student involvement and interest in social issues make them receptive to the type of training that is urgently required.

Business teacher education programs need to be altered to make them more relevant to the problems faced by the inner-city business teacher and other teachers of the disadvantaged. Only when business teacher educators become involved through firsthand experience in the problems of inner-city teaching of culturally-different young people are they likely to design programs which will serve these schools effectively. Four approaches that these educators can use in order to become directly involved on a firsthand basis with inner-city education problems are:

(1) Assisting a home-school coordinator (typically a community person who serves as liaison between community

and school) during times when public school is in session, but college is not.

(2) Donation of time to one or more of the social agencies which are indigenous to the local ghetto community (local consumer protective agencies, civil rights organizations, social welfare agencies, or a recreation agency).

(3) Observation of tutoring of students in a ghetto school and observation of business student teachers assigned to ghetto schools.

(4) Donation of teaching time to an intervening educational agency which is trying to provide job skills to culturally different youth who dropped out or were pushed out of public schools. Local Opportunities Industrialization Centers, Manpower Development Centers, and Upward Bound Programs are examples of agencies in which this help would be very much appreciated.

Once the business teacher educator has acquired firsthand experience rather than information gleaned from reading books, attending lectures, and watching television programs on poverty, he is likely to find it desirable to make these program changes in his teacher education program for preparing teachers for inner-city schools:

(1) He will avoid typical lecture-text routines and begin structuring his course to include experiences whereby his students may come into direct contact with ghetto schools, communities, and students. For example, he might schedule students to observe and tutor regularly in nearby ghetto schools.

(2) He will become knowledgeable about the cultures, customs, and values of minority groups and will direct his students to study, through direct experience, the inner-city students' backgrounds, which are usually so different from those of future business teachers.

(3) In his method courses, he will teach how to adapt subject matter to the immediate experiences of the students they are to teach rather than go exactly with the text.

(4) The business teacher educator must show future teachers how to identify and change the ideas inner-city students have about office work. These students have little perception as to what office work really is and often do not see themselves as ever being employed in an office. Teachers must identify these misconceptions and correct

them if inner-city students are to be motivated to succeed in business careers.

(5) He will stress the necessity for business teacher candidates to place more value on their students than on subject matter. Business departments in high schools often try to maintain schedules whereby certain chapters or units must be finished by a certain time; business teacher education programs thus can encourage the development of subject matter orientation in their teacher candidates.

(6) He will make it clear that culturally different students have a low self-image; that the teacher must create a teaching environment designed to help develop the self-esteem of the students by giving recognition even to low achievers and by providing daily success for each student.

(7) Since one of the ways to help culturally different students develop their self-esteem is to be concerned about them and their success in school, the teacher educator must stress the importance of being committed and dedicated, and that remaining so, often entails real effort; that it will be easy to become frustrated and indifferent.

(8) He will teach the concept of accountability by altering course content whenever achievement falls below expectation. Teaching, testing, and reteaching in micro-teaching sessions or tutoring experiences will help provide real experience in accountability.

(9) He will prepare future teachers to face problems such as extensive reading, arithmetic, and spelling difficulties their students will display. They must realize these students will often be truant and indifferent to classwork, teachers, and school in general. Their fellow teachers may be bitter and cynical.

(10) He will be realistic in his discussion of the administrative difficulties likely to be encountered due to bureaucratic intransigence of the school system. Clerks, janitors, office secretaries, and lower level administrators can become formidable obstacles to the new teachers if they are unprepared for them. Trying to change and innovate for the benefit of the students can be frustrating if they don't know the right strategies to employ. Sometimes introducing a change under the title of an experiment will work.

Youth with special needs have been identified earlier as the culturally divergent, the slow learner, and the physically handicapped. What are the basic problems teachers are apt to encounter when teaching each group?

Problems in teaching the culturally divergent are centered around three areas of student perception: school and school work, the world of work, and self.

Problems Related to Student Perception of School

One of the most difficult problems the inner-city teacher faces is the negative or indifferent attitude toward school held by many poor, culturally divergent youth. Education is not held in high esteem by those who live in poverty since it does not offer immediate rewards.

Another problem is that inner-city students are negatively affected by the apparent lack of success of their counterparts who complete their high school education. Racial prejudice and discrimination in hiring contribute to this adverse image.

The third problem is concerned with the fact that school experiences are actually relevant and meaningful to the student within his own culture and inner-city environment.

Suggested treatment for problems related to student perception of school

(1) Alter the perception that schoolwork makes little difference in employability by finding a recent graduate from the inner-city who is successfully employed in a job that is within the reach of these students if they finish the business course in which they are enrolled.

(2) Modifying course content to reflect the life styles of the students.

(3) Translating the initial discussion or problems into the language the students understand. Then when the concepts or skills have been learned, switch to office language.

(4) Emphasizing "screening in" rather than "screening out" students who have high motivation and potential but are lacking in basic language skills and mathematical background.

(5) For those culturally divergent students who have lower intellect potential, studying the opportunities in the business community for less demanding areas of employ-

ment such as switchboard operator, duplicating and reproducing machines operator. office cashiers, key punch operators, information and message distribution, clerical shipping and receiving, and general clerical office positions.

(6) Developing a consumer education course especially for this group that would provide information and correct misinformation concerning consumer affairs in the school environment. Such a course would need to relate directly to the daily problems in their lives so that they might see how their limited incomes might be put to greater advantage in the purchasing of food and clothing; how they might avoid overpaying through the understanding of purchase contracts (especially the small print), interest rates charged by loan companies, and buying on credit. The academic limitations of these students must not be allowed to reduce the effectiveness of such a course. Such students need success and need to know how they are progressing. One way to accomplish this is through the use of oral tests. Students who write poorly can often express their ideas very well verbally. This is a course that will be relatively useless if "taught by the book." The teacher must involve students in the planning of the course. Such a procedure will not only insure the content of the courses being relevant to their needs, but it will also give these students a greater feeling of their own worth since their ideas and opinions are being called upon by the instructor.

Problems Related to the Student Perception of Work

Inner-city and culturally divergent students possess extremely limited knowledge about the total range of occupations available in the United States. They perceive a very narrow range of occupations in which they think they can succeed. They have often acquired a distorted view of the nature of many of the occupations with which they are familiar.

Suggested Treatments for Problems Related to Student Perceptions of Work

One strategy already described is that of bringing into the classroom a graduate who is working successfully in the business world and with whom the student can identify, and arranging for a class discussion with him. These successful workers can talk to the students in their own language and tell them about the work they can do and the job they acquired with their high school training.

Another treatment for this problem is to arrange for the students to visit a nearby firm, interview the personnel director about jobs for which they could become qualified after high school graduation, and then split up into small groups to be assigned to observe entry-level office workers. In this way, they can see for themselves the kinds of duties the workers perform, the behavior expected of them, and how they like the work.

Another plan involves the identification by the teacher of a number of workers of the same race and economic status as the students, who are located near the school. Each student would then be asked to visit one or more of these workers for an afternoon to learn about that particular type job.

Problems Related to Student Perception of Self

Culturally divergent youngsters have a very low self-image, and this makes them less receptive to learning. Changing the self-image of the student who does not respect himself is difficult; if a student does not have faith in himself, he is not likely to have faith in a future career.

Some ways of improving self-concept would include:

(1) Using local dialect in classwork so that students will not consider themselves inferior because they do not "talk right."

(2) Involving the students in planning classwork, thus indicating to them that their opinions are worthwhile. Draw on student's personal experiences to start discussions in class, thus showing you think their lives are important. Inviting former students who are successfully employed shows the culturally different students that graduates hold responsible jobs, a goal, too, within their reach.

(3) Planning class activities in such a way that these students are able to achieve some success every day and can see their own progress.

(4) Caring for the student and his daily progress which is one of the most important treatments for this problem. Greet each student by name as he comes to class, express concern when he has not completed an assignment, and give praise when certain stated performance goals have been achieved.

Slow learners represent another group of youth with special needs. Characteristics that will help high school business education teachers identify and understand the slow learner are:

(1) Slow learners are probably limited to a maximum mental age of 12 to 14½ years and are capable of performing no more than sixth-to-ninth-grade work.

(2) They have difficulty with delayed recall, logical memory, and memory of abstract ideas. Thus, simple rote memory and mechanical associations are the best learning methods for them.

(3) They have a narrower scope of attention and cannot attend to too many things simultaneously.

(4) They have difficulty in detecting errors.

(5) They are poor at generalizing from experience.

(6) Slow learners have limited powers of self-direction and require much more individual attention. Directions must be very clear, and if complicated should be written out.

(7) They respond best to concrete activities with immediate goals.

(8) They read more slowly and with less understanding; even upon graduating from high school, the reading level will probably be in the range of sixth-to-ninth-grade.

(9) In general, they perform the arithmetic usually presented in the sixth-to-ninth-grades at the average student level in those grades.

(10) They tend to be poor spellers and to use poor grammar.

(11) They have the ability to learn and perform motor skills but find content and use of skills difficult (tabulation problems in typing, for example.)

(12) Generally speaking, they are slower in verbal or intellectual activities than in performing manual or mechanical activities.

(13) Slow learners can usually perform recording activities in bookkeeping through the trial balance, but find the interpretive phase difficult.

(14) Slow learners are apt to give up if a task appears purposeless, failure appears inevitable, and when the results of the activity are deferred to the distant future.

(15) Slow learners lack self-confidence; are followers, not leaders; are usually law-abiding; are more self-centered,

less popular; more withdrawn than the average; and are interested in manual, mechanical, or practical activities rather than intellectual ones.

(16) Most slow learners come from lower socio-economic backgrounds and reflect the value systems of that environment.

Several assumptions that have developed concerning these students are fallacious.

(1) Fallacy: This is an urban problem.
Actually, low achievers exist in virtually every school. Social problems, poor educational background, and poverty produce these youngsters, not just the inner-city environment.

(2) Fallacy: This is a problem only with black students.
Low achievement is not restricted by color or geography. Many white, Mexican-American, Oriental, and Indian students are low-achievers.

(3) Fallacy: Slow learners represent a homogeneous group.
The causes of low achievement are so different that the solutions to their problems will need to be different.

(4) Fallacy: Low achievers are dull students.
In fact, some have alert minds but, due to various reasons, have developed poor reading skills, attendance records, and behavior.

There are ways that business education teachers in all high schools can meet the needs of the slow learner in business education. These include:

(1) Providing for student interest and motivation by proving to them there is value in learning through the use of guidance information about jobs. Students' ability to gain job skills and the development of the positive self-image must also be stressed in order to motivate them to *want* to achieve.

(2) Programs that allow students to participate actively: they do not like to be "preached at." Simulated work situations and supervised practical experiences are valuable techniques to be used with the group.

(3) Programs that provide attainable success for these students. The last thing these students need is failure. Business courses must be paced realistically. Progress must be awarded promptly, but projects must be mean-

ingful to the students and lead toward a vocational, reachable goal.

(4) Programs that help develop a positive self-image for each student. They have failed or nearly failed so often in regular classes and they often feel they cannot succeed. They approach the learning of any new material with despair. The development of a good self-image cannot occur as a special unit in a special course; it must be part of the philosophy of instruction. This can be done by pacing the instruction so that the students do not become hopelessly lost, by making assignments that are within the range of all the students, by praising work well done, no matter how simple in nature.

(5) Programs or courses that are flexible. Be able to change a unit of instruction if it proves too difficult, or change a technique or approach if it is not too motivating or successful with them.

(6) Assigning work that can, for the most part, be completed in class. Poor readers cannot complete long reading assignments.

(7) Choosing instructional materials and texts that are realistic for this type of learner. More materials are becoming available as educators are gaining in awareness of the needs of this group. Simulated office situations work well for low achievers as they respond favorably to *real* things rather than drill for the sake of drill.

(8) Guidance that is honest without being cruel. Most of them know they have limitations, but they do not need fake promises and encouragement toward unrealistic goals. Teachers need to portray business positions and opportunities that are within the range of the students' abilities.

(9) Instructional goals that are realistic and readily apparent to the students. Frequent tests that are so constructed to allow success that is deserved would be much better than one or two big tests on which failure is possible for the majority.

(10) Teachers who have real empathy for the slow learner. None of the previous objectives can be reached without this ingredient. While it is necessary for the teacher to be firm and able to maintain discipline fairly, he must project unmistakably his care for and interest in each student.

Mentally retarded students vary considerably in ability, muscular coordination, and motivation. Oftentimes they are culturally deprived. Unless they have a very low level of mentality, they can profit from a clerical program that has been designed for the slow learner. They can acquire a typing skill if the teacher understands the need for repetitive work, for deliberately paced instruction, and realistic standards. Stress is on typing of a routine nature, such as addressing envelopes. They can also learn key punch operation, simple filing, and basic office machine operation. Since one of the foremost goals of the high school program for the mentally retarded is enabling such students to become self-supporting, what they learn in business courses about working with others, employment interviews, operation of machines and following instructions will carry over to other vocations. Also, these students enjoy and usually do well in highly repetitive office tasks like duplicating, photocopying, and basic keypunch operations that students of normal intelligence and ability would find tedious.

Jobs in retailing can utilize the talents of mentally retarded students who are out-going, have satisfactory appearance and manners, and possess the ability to perform simple store tasks.

It is important that businessmen and educators work closely to identify the types of jobs the mentally retarded can do in the business world and then proceed to train them and place them in positions in which they can feel secure and financially independent.

Physically handicapped students include those who have lost the use of one or both hands, who are visually handicapped, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, seriously emotionally disturbed, crippled, or have some other kind of health impairment (such as a serious heart condition, TB, etc.) which necessitates special education programs.

Business teacher educators need to prepare future teachers to handle teaching-learning situations involved with physically handicapped students no matter what the handicap. Can all physically handicapped students learn to type? Yes, if the student has any part of his body that can be manipulated. One girl with both arms disabled had a mouthpiece fitted to her teeth, with a spike attached to the mouthpiece, with which she operated an electric typewriter in an office position.

To work successfully with physically handicapped students, both business teacher educators and teachers must believe in the philosophy that no handicap need make a person vocationally disabled. A teacher's attitude that such a student could never be taught or trained for an office position or sales job might be the real obstacle to his progress.

From what business education courses can the physically handicapped most profit? Since the ability to type is so basic to most office jobs, they should be equipped with this skill, along with training on those business machines they are physically able to handle. Knowledge of basic office procedures such as filing will help them become more employable.

The blind student can also profit from using a dictating-transcribing machine, learning to use correction paper for errors, and doing most office typing, with the exception of filling in office forms. Blind students adjust to typing situations by learning the machine, by feeling its parts, acquiring knowledge of correct placement of typed materials, and centering by means of counting spaces.

If the deaf student can read lips effectively, the handicap will not hamper him in acquiring skills on most office machines and the typewriter (with the exception of dictating or transcribing machines) or enrolling in such courses as accounting. In fact, placement in a very noisy office, like a factory or large data processing installation, might turn such a handicap into an advantage, especially in positions requiring deep concentration.

The following texts, supplementary materials, special equipment, services, and bibliography are listed to assist the business teachers of the physically handicapped:

(1) *Type with One Hand* by Nina K. Richardson, published by South-Western Publishing Company. (For students who have lost either the left or right hand). This text can be used with a standard typewriter.

(2) The Dvorak One-Hand Typewriter, constructed with a special right-hand or left-hand keyboard, is available from: Typewriting Institute for the Handicapped, 3109 W. August Avenue, Phoenix, Arizona 85021, sole distributors, at a cost of $250 FOB Phoenix. If the student's school and/or parents cannot obtain this machine, the local office of the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation should be contacted. A special textbook by Dvorak-Ben'Ary comes with this typewriter and can be used either for home study or school text.

(3) The Illinois Division of Vocational Rehabilitation has thirty-six offices throughout the State of Illinois that will supply the business teacher with many services and equipment items that range from optical aids like special

bifocal glasses for the visually handicapped to special typewriters for those who have lost one or both arms. If there is no local office available, the business teacher should write to: Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, 23 East Adams Street, Springfield, Illinois 62706.

(4) William M. Spaulding, "Handicapped, Did You Say?" *California Business Education Journal*, October, 1967, p. 11, Vol. 3.

(5) Bill Korn, "Typewriting and the Physically Handicapped," *Balance Sheet*, Vol. 48, February, 1967, pp. 256-258.

(6) Doris M. Willoughby, "Blind Children Type by Touch," *Balance Sheet*, January, 1970, pp. 213-215.

(7) Dona F. Frost, "Typewriting Instruction for the Visually Handicapped," *Journal of Business Education*, November, 1970, pp. 61-62.

The Role of Office Occupations and Distributive Education Programs in the Education of Youth with Special Needs

Not only do many youth with special needs suffer from lack of money, but they often learn best in situations where instruction has *immediate* application or relevance. Also, these students have difficulty generalizing from a school-learned task to an office or sales task. They often need more help than others in transferring school learning to the job.

Thus, because immediate payoff for skills and knowledge learned is the prime asset of cooperative programs in office and distributive education, cooperative programs can often spell the difference to youth with special needs by bridging the school-to-work gap.

Coordinator acceptance of students is crucial. One of the most incongruous characteristics of many office occupations and distributive education programs is that the coordinator accepts the student who does not necessarily need the program and excludes those students who truly could benefit from this opportunity. The former is obviously easier to work with but the latter needs a transitional program — be it a simulated work situation in the classroom or a cooperative program in the field. If coordinators are interested in helping all young people, as well as those who make a good impression on the employers, they will guide them:

(1) To improve their personal appearances.

(2) To acquire the language of business.

(3) To gain employment skills.

(4) To change any negative characteristics or mannerisms that will make them less employable.

(5) To find an understanding employer who appreciates the potential and need of the student to succeed on the job. (Since the youth with special needs often has economic problems, the employer is usually in a position to offer more tangible rewards for improvement on the job, so his role in preparing the disadvantaged student for employability is a critical one.)

Both distributive education and office education cooperative programs are in a unique position for helping youth with special needs by providing them with material and educational incentives for completing at least a high school education. Office Occupations and DECA club activities such as contests dealing with sales demonstrations and job interviews, attendance at conferences, and meeting with representatives of the business community all help these students to change their negative attitudes toward school, the business world, and themselves. The fields of distribution and office education offer more variety of opportunity than any other economic area.

Because business educators tend to be performance-standards conscious and sensitive to what they think are the local or area skill requirements of the business world, standards in business education for youth with special needs must be considered.

Usually disadvantaged students have a very low self-image. They may make progress in a class and yet still receive low grades. Some techniques assigned to foster a positive achievement are:

(1) Standards in a course should be set on the basis of individual progress of students.

(2) Award A's and B's in the usual manner, but reward any student who tries and continues to improve with at least a C.

(3) Change the title of the course from Typewriting I, for example, to Clerical Typewriting. Variations in course titles in terms of ranges of performance can be worked out in advance with most principals and guidance counselors.

(4) Instead of setting a single standard for an entire class comprised of individuals with diverse abilities and goals, it would be more appropriate for the teacher to set a

standard for himself to develop the skill of each student to his maximum.

Local skills for the various job opportunities of a given community can be determined by a survey. The results can serve as a guide for skill attainment.

Predictive measures for courses in business education (such as English grades for shorthand) are far too crude to be used to screen out highly motivated students from these courses. Disadvantaged youth are apt to be excluded not because of their interest or potential but simply because of poor previous training. Thus, if their potential is good and their English bad, they need to be helped by the business teacher, not screened out. If this teacher will take this additional responsibility, it might very well represent the last opportunity for the disadvantaged student to attain employability in a business position which can utilize his potential to the fullest. A course such as shorthand, however, requires a knowledge of spelling and grammar and transcription requires understanding of symbolic language and will require prior competency in language skills.

Business educators must feel accountable for the achievement of students with special needs. They must be willing to alter content, change teaching approaches and philosophies, rid themselves of bias and prejudice, and alert themselves to new machines and methodology in order to help such students achieve their potential for office or merchandising employment which in turn will result in their gaining economic independence and self-respect. If business educators close their minds to these young people, they will also shut off what might very well be their last chance for attaining a constructive place in society.

REFERENCES

Chilman, Catherine, *Growing Up Poor, Overview and Analysis of Child-Rearing and Family Life Patterns Associated With Poverty*, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Division of Research, 1967.

Dawson, Helaine, *On The Outskirts of Hope*, New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, 1968.

Dawson, Helaine, "The Disadvantaged Need New Teaching Approaches," *Business Education Forum*, January, 1969.

Dye, Franklin H., ed., *Chicago Area Better Office Training* (CABOT) Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, Springfield, Illinois, May, 1971.

Fraser, H. H., *The Job Ahead*, Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1963.

Harrington, Michael, *The Other American*, New York: McMillan Book Company, 1962.

Herzog, Elizabeth, *About The Poor, Some Facts and Some Fictions*, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Division of Research, 1967.

Ireman, Lola M., *Low Income Life Styles*, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Division of Research, 1966.

Jacobson, Lenor F., and Robert Rosenthal, "Teacher Expectations for the Disadvantaged," *Scientific American*, April, 1968.
Kozol, Jonathan, *Death At An Early Age*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Publishing Company, 1967.
Mayerson, Charlotte, *Two Blocks Apart*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Publishing Company, 1965.
Popham, Estelle, "Business Education in Inner-City Schools," *Business Education Forum*, January, 1969.
Popham, Estelle, ed., *Involvement*, Hunter College Publication, 1970.
Schultheis, Robert, "Changing Business Education Programs for Inner-City Schools," *National Business Education Quarterly*, Winter, 1969.
Schultheis, Robert, "Preservice Programs for Business Teachers in Inter-City Schools, *Business Education Forum*, January, 1969.
Schultz, Mindella; Phillip Saunders, and John Soboslay. *The Economics of Poverty*, (for 9th grade), Joint Council on Economic Education, 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N. Y., 1968.
Turner, Richard H., *Turner-Livingston Reading Series*, New York: Follett Publishing Company, 1963.
Warmke, R. F., and W. H. Wilson, *Life on Paradise Island*, Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970.
Winnett, William, "Better Business Education for the Disadvantaged Through In-Service Programs," *Business Education Forum*, January, 1969.
Wood, Merle, "The Disadvantaged Student," *Business Education World*, October and November, 1969 (Two Parts).

CURRICULAR AND TIME PATTERNS FOR LEARNING

All curricular and time patterns developed and operating within the school framework have one common goal — to assure that a student learns to the optimum of his ability. In all stages of planning, concerning courses in sequence with one another, as well as sequence of units within a course, student performance must be the prime objective. The amount of time formally scheduled to a course must be in relationship to the type of skill to be developed as well as the range of abilities of the individuals in the course.

Education for the 1970's must be planned with a new and discriminating look at commonly accepted practices which may no longer be valid. Such practices include the concept of an equal time allotment to all courses and the unquestioning acceptance of traditional course sequences and subject matter units.

In examining the concepts in light of student performance goals and within the framework of an administrative system, the perplexing problem is to be able to treat students as human beings and as individuals with unique and varying abilities. The economics of time and finances support the concept of mass education through an administrative system, but the individuality of the student must not be subordinated to this principle.

Learning How to Learn

The expansion of knowledge is increasing at such a rate that it is impossible to study all of it. Permeating each course with its objectives and body of content is the all-school goal of learning to learn. To keep abreast of changes and to become informed about emergent areas of knowledge requires an individual capable of self-education. Activities need to be included which enable the student to achieve this goal through self-direction.

Time Patterns

Business courses can be divided into two broad categories according to the skills primarily emphasized:

1. Courses whose primary emphasis is on the manipulative skills such as shorthand, typing, and business machines.
2. Courses whose primary emphasis is on the mental processes such as accounting, business law, general business, and marketing.

Desired student objectives in some areas of business education take longer to achieve than others. Ideally, time would be allotted on an individual basis, with each student having the opportunity to progress at his own rate. Practically, however, some structure is required. It is the responsibility of the teacher to develop individualized patterns within the structure.

Available resources also play an important part in determining time allocations. For example, the availability of a shorthand lab may indicate a liberal amount of practice time scheduled under independent study. Beyond the set minimum, time patterns are made available which give opportunities for individual students to develop the skill and sufficient practice time to maintain it. Some students will need a considerable amount of practice time outside the formal scheduled time to acquire a degree of competency. (See Diagram A.)

Some courses can achieve the student objectives more effectively by different modes of instruction. Courses in the mental processes category should have time patterns which schedule considerable time for independent study. Such time would be utilized to gather data information, to explore in the area, and to draw conclusions from available information and data collected.

Time should also be scheduled for large group instruction which would include activities designed to stimulate the students in a given area, to have them become informed on a given topic, and to present to them a summarization of the unit.

DIAGRAM A. POSSIBLE TIME PATTERN OF COURSES WHOSE PRIMARY EMPHASIS IS ON THE MANIPULATIVE SKILLS

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Formal class meeting 40-45 min.		Formal class meeting 40-45 min.		Independent Study Time (1st) additional practice if needed or wanted
	Lab time required for those not meeting min. performance level.		Lab time required for those not meeting min. performance level.	
Independent Study Time (1st) additional practice if needed or wanted				Formal class meeting 40-45 min.

Small group instruction would be used for activities designed to enable students to verbalize their ideas, to interact with their associates, and to make value judgments and draw conclusions. (See Diagram B.)

DIAGRAM B. POSSIBLE TIME PATTERN OF COURSES WHERE PRIMARY EMPHASIS IS ON THE MENTAL PROCESSES.

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
	Large Group meeting 40-45 min.			Small Gorup meeting
			Independent Study Time (1ST)	
Small Group meeting				
	Independent Study Time (1ST)	Small Group meeting		

To accomplish these desired activities, time patterns must be developed which will allow the teacher of the course to select the time modules which give the total time necessary and flexibility as to when the time modules should occur. Thus, classes need not meet every day nor should they be of equal length. Modular and variable scheduling allow this flexibility.

Traditional scheduling must be re-examined and modified to include variations. (See Diagrams C and D)

Curricular Patterns

Curricular patterns deal with the sequence or order of units within a course and the sequence of courses leading toward a defined skill competency or a family of skill competencies. Teachers must critically examine the sequences to determine if they are natural sequences according to the inherent nature of the skill to be developed or to the natural laws of learning or whether they are teacher-constructed sequences. If the sequences are based on the former, that is, the inherent pattern of the skill or the natural laws of learning, they should be rigorously followed.

If, however, the sequence is based on man-made selection due to convenience or some other arbitrary decision, the teacher must recognize this and be willing to change the sequence to meet individual differences or to modify organizational structures.

Length of the School Year

The length of the school year will have little effect on the business education program. Curricular and time patterns can be adjusted to fit a variety of school years including a twelve-month plan.

Adult Education

The rapid expansion of adult education programs is evidence of the tremendous desire of adults to increase their knowledge in a given area, to develop new skills or extend present ones, to explore different areas, or to accept the challenge of a new field of knowledge or technology. The flexibility of curricular and time patterns must be available so the teachers can use this as a means to meet the wide variety of differences found in a class of adults. Tremendous differences exist in the areas of experiential backgrounds, individual reasons for taking a course, readiness to learn a given skill, and personal abilities. Successful adult education programs have met these differences through a variety of curricular and time patterns.

Successful programs offer courses under larger blocks of time than the traditional — two or three hour sessions — and less often per week — once or twice a week. This enables the adult to include formal education within his leisure time. In addition, some programs offer courses in the late afternoon as well as in the evening to accommodate students with varied

DIAGRAM C. POSSIBLE TEACHER SCHEDULE UNDER MODULAR SCHEDULING SHOWING FORMAL CLASS TIME ONLY. TEACHER TEACHES THREE SECTIONS OF TYPING I AND TWO SECTIONS OF DATA PROCESSING.

L.G. — Large Group
S.G. — Small Group

Periods	Monday (Day 1)	Tuesday (Day 2)	Wednesday (Day 3)	Thursday (Day 4)	Friday (Day 5)
1					
2					
3		Processing Data (L.G. [illegible])	Data Processing (S.G.)		
4					
5	Typing I		Typing I		Typing I
6				Typing I-B (Lab)	
7	Data Processing (S.G.)	Data Processing (S.G.)			
8					
9				[illegible]	
10	[illegible]		[illegible]		[illegible]
11					
12	Lunch	Lunch	Typing I	Lunch	Lunch
13	Lunch	Lunch		Lunch	Lunch
14	Typing I	Typing I-B (Lab)	Lunch		
15			Lunch		
16					
17					Data Processing (S.G.)
18	Data Processing (S.G.)				
19				Data Processing (S.G.)	
20					Typing I
21					

DIAGRAM D. POSSIBLE TEACHER SCHEDULE UNDER MODULAR SCHEDULING SHOWING FORMAL CLASS TIME ONLY. TEACHER TEACHES ONE SECTION OF CONSUMER EDUCATION (TEAM TEACHES WITH ANOTHER TEACHER IN THE LARGE GROUP PART), TWO SECTIONS OF BEGINNING TYPING, AND THE EQUIVALENT OF TWO SECTIONS (FOUR SECTIONS SPREAD OUT OVER THE FULL YEAR) OF INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS.

Periods	Monday (Day 1)	Tuesday (Day 2)	Wednesday (Day 3)	Thursday (Day 4)	Friday (Day 5)
1					
2					
3	Admin. (H.R.)	Admin. (H.R.)	Admin. (H.R.)	Admin. (H.R.)	Admin. (H.R.)
4		[illegible]			
5					
6		[illegible]			
7					
8	[illegible]				
9					
10	Beg. Typ.		Beg. Typ.		Beg. Typ.
11					
12					
13	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
14	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
15	Beg. Typ.	[illegible]	Beg. Typ.	[illegible]	Beg. Typ.
16					
17	[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]	
18					
19		[illegible]		[illegible]	
20					
21		[illegible]		[illegible]	
22					
23					
24					

work hours. Such time patterns have been developed with the purpose of adjusting the program to the life styles of the adult world.

ACCOUNTABILITY: EDUCATING STUDENTS FOR BUSINESS AS IT NOW EXISTS

Just as changes in industry are inevitable as forced by new methods, new products, new materials, research, and automation, changes within the educational philosophies are brought about by new media, new methods, new objectives, new student attitudes, and legislative budget controls. It is currently fashionable, for example, for the general public to be suspicious of organized and institutionalized education. A concept is developing which links money spent with value received in education. Should not some person or persons be responsible or accountable for this investment?

Business educators possess no immunity to this charge. In fact, there would be few true professional business educators who would deny the general premise that they are more accountable for their performance in the classroom than most other teachers. Any reliable acountability system must include some identification of the student's success following graduation. This identification seems more apparent with business majors than general education majors; however, measuring teacher influences is a most complex and comprehensive endeavor. The concentrated educational speciality of business teachers includes the total talents in teaching for maximum occupational intelligence, expertness of skills, and a comprehensive appreciation of economics.

The rationale of business education accountability is thus supported by the role of the teacher in educating students for business as it is *now.*

To Whom Are Business Educators Accountable?

A multitude of accountable factors are accepted by every business teacher. The business teacher is accountable for his contributions to the total educational outcome. His classroom competence must be synchronized with the total interrelationship of all instructional influences. He must seek valid and reliable evidence to substantiate good teaching. This evidence might be secured through follow-up studies, visits to businesses employing graduates, evaluative conferences with other teachers and supervisors, and analysis of grades. A genuine desire to improve classroom performance must be evident.

Cardinal to this concept will be the business educator's accountability to himself. Let each business educator resolve to be the most magnificent teacher possible, limited only by his innovative aspirations. He must develop and accept a philosophy of partnership with the business world, staying constantly informed of current research and aware of new business procedures and trends. He must then make an intelligent interpretation of these business trends for the effective transfer to the student.

Accountable teaching involves so much more than mere acceptance of the responsiblity for certain standardized grades earned in some isolated course. This accountability should be expanded to include the motivation for each student to be:

1. Flexible enough to adapt to change.
2. Congenial enough to listen to new and different ideas.
3. Ambitious enough to try a different procedure.
4. Intelligent enough to be well mannered.
5. Patient enough to try again when the first attempt fails.
6. Polite enough to help a co-worker in need.
7. Courteous enough to recognize confidential information.
8. Proud enough to appreciate good grooming.
9. Mature enough to accept criticism.
10. Sensible enough to use good judgment.
11. Loyal enough to work overtime.
12. Optimistic enough to smile.

Guides for Accountable Teaching of Basic Business and Economic Understanding

Primary to any successful basic business or economic education course is the teacher's acceptance of clearly defined objectives for that course. These objectives must be relevant to the modern economic philosophies and, moreover, must touch upon the business trends of tomorrow. Sincere acceptance of these defined objectives can be the only hope of developing new student understanding and appreciation of economic freedoms, living standards, and the answers to how the world of business functions. Through these course objectives, the teacher can build intelligent student reaction to conflicting opinions within business and model a student's conception of economic responsibility. The teacher is accountable for developing in his students the realization that they are an integral part of the total economic system rather than mere bystanders.

Graduate follow-up studies may well serve as one reliable guideline in the establishment of improved course objectives. Direct questions can determine the economic concepts necessary for success in a graduate's everyday living.

A wide variety of teaching methods which are suitable to basic business and economic courses are available. Deliberate experimentation of various teaching methods which best accomplish the objectives should be a prime concern. The learning results of class excursions, guest speakers, student committees, scrapbooks, supervised laboratories, audiovisual aids, library assignments and student buzz sessions should be validated.

Guides for Accountable Teaching in Skills Competency

The teaching of business occupational skills must be geared to present and future business practices. In no other area of business educaton is this factor more important. One of the most serious problems facing business educators today is keeping abreast of new devices and revised skill requirements. Skill standards based solely on publishers and other teacher's comments are insufficient to support accountable teaching. Classroom occupational skill standards must be designed from the results of careful analysis of specific job requirements. Obviously, there is little disagreement in admitting that business educator competency is the natural and desired result of adequate business experience. Business experience must be periodic to be modern, and must be of the caliber which can substantiate classroom theory to be relevant. Business educators are charged with the responsibility of synchronizing occupational preparation with the rapidly changing technology of this day and time.

The ultimate goal of teaching, even within the occupational skills, is development of the total growth of the student. Too great is the temptation to devote all energies to the building of words per minute, and to overlook an opportunity to teach tact; or to teach transcription talents, and overlook an opportunity to teach the value of integrity.

Summary

The concept of accountability shifts attention to the quality of instruction rather than the traditional emphasis on curricula design. The problematic portion of the accountability theory involves the development of objective criteria to assess teacher performance. Since business educators are directly involved in occupational education, they are well within the target center of accountable classroom performance. A united accountability theory which includes responsibility to the profession, to the student, to the schools, and to the business world in general is most advisable.

A serious consideration of the main implications of accountability and educating students for business can be of favorable consequence. When this consideration brings forth conclusive thoughts for improved teaching, the educator's complacency should become disturbed because he will then question his teaching effectiveness. He will be led to speculate and experiment to discover a better teaching method. He must be compelled to set the standards for which he is held accountable by educating his students for business as it now exists.

A TASK FORCE APPROACH

Dr. Gerald F. Bober

Advisory Committee Member
Consultant, Chicago Public Schools

Writers

Mr. Robert Bergman
Vocational Director
Elgin Public Schools
Elgin

Miss Donna Busjahn
Hinsdale High School
Hinsdale

Mr. Jack Curless
Assistant Superintendent
Thornton High School
Harvey

Miss Margaret Garrison
Illinois Central College
East Peoria

Mr. Sam Herndon
Counselor
Roxana High School
Roxana

Mrs. Wilma Hunter
Southeastern Illinois College
Harrisburg

Dr. Anna Mahaffey
University of Illinois
Urbana

Mr. Paul Pair
Control Data Corporation
Chicago

Mr. Charles E. Ridenour
Bloomington High School
Bloomington

Dr. Theodore F. Rockafellow
Superintendent
Moline Schools
Moline

Mr. Roy E. Sheppard
Principal
Mattoon Senior High School
Mattoon

Dr. Harold R. Steinhauser
Rock Valley College
Rockford

Dr. Ruth Wegforth
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb

BUSINESS EDUCATION AT ALL LEVELS

Business education is a field which requires the cooperation of personnel at all educational levels.

The role of each of the concerned individuals must be clearly defined yet flexible enough to achieve maximum benefits for all students. The way in which the task force functions determines the effectiveness of the total business program. The teachers, counselors, and administrators must make every effort to communicate needs and concerns to one another regarding an elective field such as business education.

Students at all educational levels should be apprised of the purposes of business education as well as the opportunities; parents should be aware of articulation between levels.

EMERGING PROGRAMS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

An increasing emphasis on career education and the world of work is found in the elementary grades. Students must be oriented to occupational information early in the elementary school, even in kindergarten. The "attitude toward work" concept is generally developed at an early age and should be a major thrust of elementary school education. This emphasis is not only in the direction of business occupations, but toward fields of shortage such as health occupations, public service careers, and others.[1] Business teachers and other vocational educators will be involved to an increasing degree in planning such programs. A model for Illinois is shown on the following page.

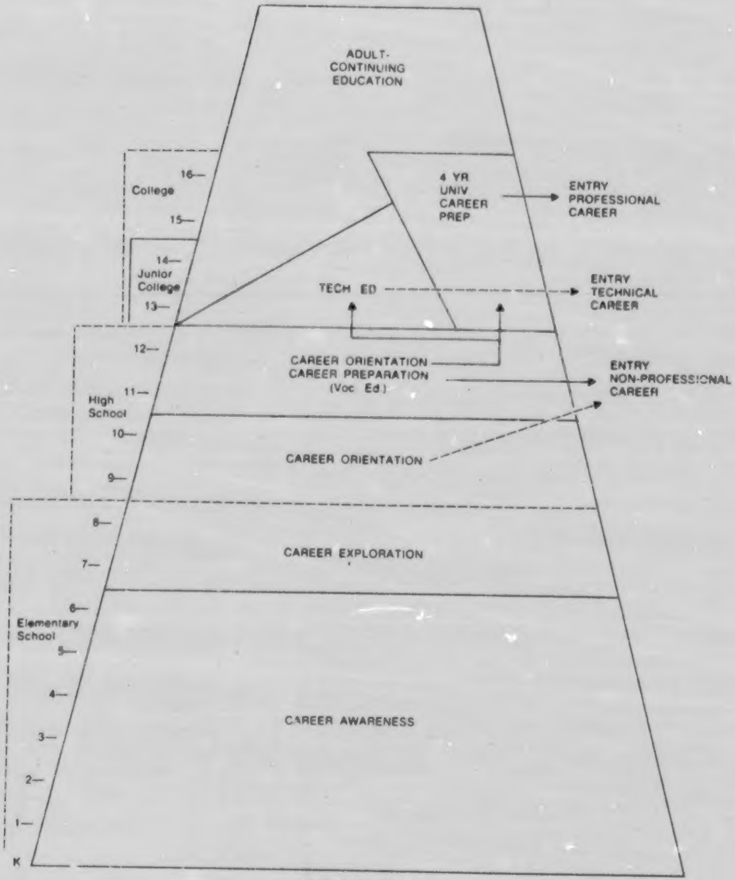
Some elementary schools offer typewriting as a communication skill on an experimental basis. The long term value of such a program should be considered as well as the problem of articulation of these children in the high school setting.

---

[1] Sherwood Dees, State Director of Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois. An excerpt from his speech delivered at the EXPO '71 Conference, Northern Illinois University, June 24, 1971.

State of Illinois
BOARD OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION
DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

405 Centennial Building
Springfield, Illinois 62706


ADULT-CONTINUING EDUCATION
College
16—
15—
14—
Junior College
13—
4 YR UNIV CAREER PREP
ENTRY PROFESSIONAL CAREER
TECH ED
ENTRY TECHNICAL CAREER
12—
11—
High School
10—
9—
CAREER ORIENTATION
CAREER PREPARATION
(Voc. Ed.)
ENTRY NON-PROFESSIONAL CAREER
CAREER ORIENTATION
8—
7—
CAREER EXPLORATION
6—
Elementary School
5—
4—
3—
2—
1—
K
CAREER AWARENESS

Career Education
ILLINOIS MODEL

EMERGING PROGRAMS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The contributions of business education in grades 7, 8, and 9 have been more direct and widespread. Business teacher certification normally encompasses grades 7-12; consequently, there are a greater number of certified business teachers involved in the middle schools than in elementary grades. The three common subject areas are Typewriting, Business I, and Consumer Economics.

As stated previously, typewriting has greater vocational value if taught in later years. A psychological principle suggests that a partially-learned skill is lost if not put into regular use. Schools may choose to offer typewriting in the 9th grade to accommodate potential dropouts or as the first course of an extensive secretarial sequence leading to cooperative office education in the 11th or 12th grades. Extreme care in articulation between this level and the high school is necessary, or again there is a waste of money and time.

Business I (General Business) can serve as a valuable general education elective for junior high students. The content recommended appears later in the bulletin under the course guidelines. The so-called "exploratory" course devoting a number of weeks to shorthand, typewriting, sales and accounting is not recommended. Occupational exploration more broad in scope is essential and can occur in Business I through the study of occupations and careers beyond those included in the business field. Students should be acquainted with careers in the various fields, through brief demonstrations, discussions and observation. It is likely that a student will learn as much as he needs to know in these brief outings as he would in a two- or three-week trial enrollment in various courses.

Consumer Economics or Business Economics is another general education course which has value in the 9th grade, especially for potential dropouts. Guidelines for this course appear later in this bulletin.

A few school systems, including Chicago, have introduced exploratory work experience programs at the junior high school level. Enrollment in these programs is limited to *overaged, underachievers* who have career interests in the clerical occupational area. With such students there is always a greater risk factor and not all in the program meet with success. One problem is that businessmen prefer the older students normally enrolled in cooperative office education and distributive education programs as part-time trainees. However, a number of potential and actual dropouts terminate their formal education at the 9th grade level and many boards of education believe that the relevancy of in-school education is enhanced by actual work experience at this level.

The most crucial need at this level is the proper advisement of students as they prepare for scheduling of high school courses. General education, per se, prepares a student for general unemployment. Plans should include not only general education courses but also those needed for a salable skill at the time of high school graduation.

EMERGING PROGRAMS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND AREA VOCATIONAL CENTER

Education for living in a rapidly changing, increasingly complex society is the purpose of a total educational program; and an effective business education program contributes to the attainment of this objective. The purposes of business education are to (1) provide general education in business that is appropriate for all students, and (2) provide career education needed by students pursuing a business career at any occupational level.

General education objectives are met through business programs designed to enhance fundamental skills, provide personal use skills and attitudes, and develop economic literacy both as a consumer and as a citizen. *Business career education* objectives are achieved through programs designed to provide vocational competency for job entry and advancement, and to build a foundation for advanced study in a collegiate institution. *Both* general and business career objectives are met through all business programs which are designed to (1) develop human relations attitudes and skills, (2) explore career opportunities in business, (3) create self-reliance and awareness for career aspirations, (4) develop problem-solving strategies, and (5) create an acceptance of the concept that learning continues beyond formal education.

The general and specialized goals of business education present an opportunity and a challenge to improve existing programs and to develop new curriculum concepts to fulfill those purposes. Factors to be considered in the expansion and improvement of business education programs at the secondary level include:

1. Student needs, aptitudes, and interests;
2. School role, objectives, location, size, facilities, and equipment;
3. Community and business needs, surveys, advisory committees, and cooperative efforts;

4. Employment trends, technological advances, state and federal programs;
5. Vocational guidance function of the school, including placement, follow-up studies of graduates, and cooperation with employment services.

Core curriculum programs based upon the needs of school, student, and community should be developed by the individual schools. Secondary schools have an especially important role to fulfill as the majority of the students leave school at, or prior to, high school graduation. It is, therefore, imperative that all educational programs meet the needs of all students at this level. Business education programs must take advantage of the opportunity to provide general education for all and to develop vocational competency for those students interested in business careers. Business education must also accept the challenge of leadership that re-emphasis on the world of work requires of all education.

Emerging Programs in the Area Vocational Center

The area vocational centers in Illinois are being established to insure a superior education to all students from the smallest and most economically disadvantaged communities of the State to the larger urban slum areas. Many schools in Illinois are too small and too limited in special facilities and equipment to provide the educational services needed to meet the present day demand. Thus, the area center courses are an expansion of those offered by the comprehensive high school and provide a constructive and practical approach to an adequate secondary education in greater vocational depth than would otherwise be possible.

The major objectives of the area vocational centers are to:

1. Prepare students outside the college preparatory curriculum with an entry-level job skill.
2. Prepare students for post-high school vocational and technical education.
3. Aid the student in his individual development.
4. Provide a broad base of vocational training.
5. Develop proper attitudes toward work.
6. Provide adults with retraining and upgrading training.

An AVC program in business education may provide the opportunity for better and more realistic teaching facilities, a much more diversified curriculum, a better vocational library, and more up-to-date equipment which students will find in a modern office. An AVC should have a qualified staff; the program will be under close administrative, community, and state supervision.

Eighteen area vocational centers existed in Illinois in 1970.[1] Sixteen schools listed two or more program offerings with a total of 61 approved programs for secondary schools in business, marketing, and management. Considering the fact that area centers in Illinois were first approved in late 1965, they are being developed and approved very rapidly. This trend toward the area vocational center aproach to vocational education or some modified plan for sharing resources (facilities, staff, equipment, etc.) is certain to continue through the 1970's.

Approximately 75 per cent of the work population enters the labor force upon high school graduation, and "between 1966 and 1980 some 21 million new office-type jobs may be created with some 8.4 million available to teen-agers."[2] Business educators, therefore, have a challenge to develop and implement new programs, incorporate innovative teaching methods in day-to-day instruction, and utilize up-to-date instructional media. The business educator of the future must keep himself in tune with the rapidly changing demands of both business and society. The trend for instruction in electronic data processing to move from the college to the high school level is an excellent example of the contribution which the area vocational centers can make in meeting the demands of the business world for adequately trained employees in the 1970's.

EMERGING PROGRAMS IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Philosophy. In former years, Illinois public higher education was designed primarily for students studying for a bachelor's degree or enrolled in graduate school. During the past decade great emphasis has been given to the formation of two-year public community colleges (13 and 14th grades). Presently there are 46 community or junior colleges enrolling 163,000 students in the State. Advances in technology and the increase in specialization require vocational competence at many job levels. Therefore, it is felt that public higher education should offer preparation for a greater variety of needs than those met by more traditional four-year degree programs.

---

[1] Edward Anderson and Wayne Zook. *An Analysis of Secondary Area Vocational Centers of Illinois*, Part I. Bulletin 21-1070, p. 1, October 1970, Division of Vocational and Technical Education.

[2] Bruce I. Blackstone, "State of the Union in Office Education," *Foundation for Business Education Bulletin.* March, 1968, p. 8.

A great number of business offerings at the post-high school level are available, and in most cases readily accessible, to both college-age youth and adults through the statewide network of comprehensive community colleges. These institutions, as they now exist, are an outgrowth of the master plan for higher education which was approved by the Illinois General Assembly in the 1960's. Admission is granted to all students of post-high school age who wish to improve themselves.

Types of students served. Students enrolled in community college programs include those who are:

1. Following a curriculum of two years or less which leads to a specific career.
2. Desiring to upgrade or improve vocational skills or general knowledge.
3. Taking miscellaneous courses without regard to established curricula.
4. Needing to improve basic educational skills to the level of competency needed for success in college-level courses.
5. Studying the first two years of a bachelor's degree program.

Types of Business Programs Available. Business programs usually offered by community colleges include:

1. Accounting, data processing, retailing, transportation, hotel-motel management, real estate, or secretarial programs which lead to a certificate or to an associate degree. On-the-job internships permit the student to relate academic knowledge to the world of work.
2. Non-credit courses in such fields as income-tax preparation, investments, personal typewriting, and certified professional secretary examination review.
3. General studies designed for the undecided student or for those whose developed abilities in the educational area need to be upgraded.
4. Business administration and business education curricula which parallel the requirements of the first two years of bachelor degree programs of senior colleges and universities.

5. Lectures, seminars, and conferences utilizing college resources and sponsored by the college or by community business organizations in such areas as accounting, law, management, marketing, real estate, and secretarial.

The Future. Factors contributing to continued demand for community college business education offerings are:

1. The cost of higher education is rising year by year. More students may find it necessary to live at home and commute to the nearest community college during their first two undergraduate years.
2. The rapid growth in technology requires professionals to delegate more of their routine duties to specialized supportive personnel. This need for trained para-professional and mid-management workers is being fulfilled, in part at least, by comprehensive community college career programs.
3. Demand for continuing education is increasing. Comprehensive community colleges with their varied educational offerings are the logical institutions to meet this demand.
4. A number of college enrollees are "first generation" students in higher education. Such students often choose the public comprehensive community college because of its size, wide choice of curricula of varying length, and emphasis on individual attention.

EMERGING PROGRAMS IN THE FOUR-YEAR COLLEGIATE INSTITUTION

Programs and Courses. Changes in collegiate business programs during the 1970's will be influenced by the master plan for Illinois higher education. This plan cites the need for a unified system of higher education, identifies critical factors, and calls for a marshaling of resources to meet requirements of the population.

Departments and colleges of business are faced with demands for accountability. They must demonstrate the efficacy of existing programs and justify in detail the addition of new courses and programs. Administrators and curriculum planners are charged with responsibility for considering limitation of financial resources, need for achieving economies in operation, and a probable enrollment peak in 1980. A larger share of the resources of four-year institutions is being devoted to upper-division programs as a result of the dynamic growth of junior and community colleges in Illinois.

Schools of business are moving toward an interdisciplinary approach and the softening of strict departmental lines in an attempt to improve effectiveness of instruction, make more efficient use of personnel, eliminate subject matter duplication, and avoid proliferation of courses and programs.

Methods and Emphases. Innovations are not only possible but imperative within the framework of the master plan. Variation in methods of presenting material, more effective use of hardware and software, and expanded use of community resources are increasingly evident. Group dynamics and human relations are stressed, and students are encouraged to experiment with new approaches to the solution of business and business-related problems. Relevance of subject matter, improvement of communication skills, and attention to the process of change are being emphasized in business programs. Environmental problems and the social implications of business decisions are examined in depth.

Business Students Served. More student involvement in planning and implementing institutional policies and procedures is anticipated as the mean age of students in four-year institutions moves upward and as business students exhibit the degree of maturity and sophistication necessary for expanded participation. Assuring greater continuity in the educational process and easing of problems experienced by transfer students is sought through cooperative efforts of junior and senior colleges.

Experimental projects designed to extend opportunity for a college education to high-ability students from depressed areas are being expanded. Service to the larger community receives increasing emphasis. Seminars, short courses, inservice training programs and conferences are offered to meet the educational needs of widely diverse groups.

EMERGING PROGRAMS IN THE PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOL

The success of private business schools is dependent upon their ability to offer programs that reinforce and enlarge upon those previously encountered by their students, and/or programs that cannot be provided, or are not being provided, in other institutions.

Private business schools in Illinois serve four classes of career-minded students:

(1) Those who have completed their high school or college program without having achieved skills for entry-level occupations in business.

(2) Those who have been enrolled in a four-year college or university but have been unable to complete their course of study.

(3) Those who have prepared for business careers in either high school or college and wish to upgrade their skills.

(4) Those who are currently employed and who wish to prepare for job transfer or promotion.

In effect, private business schools respond to a felt need; their enrollees are highly motivated to actions that will have a direct and immediate effect on their career objectives. These schools can continue to function only to the extent that they are able to fulfill these needs adequately.

Programs offered are varied and presented in concentration on an individualized progression basis. Flexible schedule patterns permit students who are employed to arrange their classes around job schedules.

Curricular offerings have kept pace with demands of business with such courses as data processing, computer programming, insurance adjusting, life insurance accounting, real estate, transportation, and traffic management.

Some of the advantages which have motivated students to seek business college training include:

(1) The length of the program is suited to the student's needs and abilities, with the resultant savings of time and money.

(2) The schools are frequently located in highly populated areas and are served by public transportation, thereby facilitating access to their facilities.

(3) Placement services are excellent; many of the schools guarantee job placement to students who complete the programs.

ARTICULATION BETWEEN LEVELS IN EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS

Definition. Articulation has been defined as "(1) the process of so arranging the instructional programs of the successive grades and divisions of the school system that a closely interlocking, continuous, and consistent educational environment is provided for pupils as they progress through the system; (2) the degree of continuity, consistency, and interdependence in the offerings of the successive grades and division of the school system."[1]

Purpose. Learning is a continuous process and could take place more efficiently and effectively if the curriculum in the entire educational system were articulated to provide a continuum. One author calls for "an unbroken flow of experiences planned with and for the individual learner throughout his contacts with the school."[2] This would prevent wasting the learner's time and allow him to learn much more.

Method. The value of articulation is more readily apparent than a way to accomplish this goal. However, some steps can be taken.

1. One of the most successful approaches is for teachers, administrators, and businessmen from every level of education to get together and work out a curriculum continuum (e.g., advisory committee).
2. Exchange of teachers from one level to another for short periods of time gives the instructors added insight into how and what they should teach in their own classes (e.g., high school accounting and college accounting).
3. Periodic meetings of teachers of one particular subject area can convey what is being done on each level and what should ideally be done (e.g., business concepts in social studies and business).
4. Placement testing can help the teachers recognize how much the students have accomplished so they can continue at the level and pace best suited to the learners. This would be especially workable in the skill areas of business, such as typewriting and shorthand.
5. Guidance counselors can help bridge the gap in many areas. High schools sometimes have community college and university counselors speak to their classes about prerequisites and course content in the college classes. Occupational guidance can be given at the elementary through the university levels.
6. Cooperative use of equipment, such as data processing

---

[1] Carter V. Good, *Dictionary of Education* 2d ed. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1959, p. 40.

[2] Harold G. Shane, "A Curriculum Continuum: Possible Trends in the 70's," *Phi Delta Kappan*, LI March, 1970, pp. 389-92.

machines, by personnel from different levels can encourage articulation.

ROLE CONCEPT OF THE BUSINESS TEACHER

The business teacher must present to students and the business community a model of confident, competent leadership. His image should be that of one who knows and *knows* that he knows, of one who exemplifies the best in business and professional life. As a leader, he exemplifies competence in consumership, an active role in community affairs, and is apprised of the job market in which students will seek employment. He is enthusiastic, maintains a democratic atmosphere in the classroom, and allows students a voice in planning and implementing activities.

The primary role of the teacher is that of aiding students in the development of economic literacy, occupational skills, desirable personality traits, and related knowledge that will be acceptable in the business environment. He ascertains the competency level of students and helps each one to learn through praise, individual attention, and tutoring. The business teacher fosters personality development through example, direction in group discussions, and encouragement of self-expression. He leads the shy, retiring individual to accept greater responsibility, build self-confidence, and develop communication skills so that he will mature into a competent employee who is also an efficient consumer.

A business teacher plays the role of counselor. His sincere interest in students and a knowledge of their backgrounds, interests, hobbies, goals, and daily problems makes meaningful and effective guidance possible.

ROLE CONCEPT OF THE COUNSELOR AND/OR VOCATIONAL COUNSELOR

The counselor, especially the person responsible for vocational counseling, has a special responsibility to all of the vocational areas including business education. Society and the schools are in the midst of a great turmoil because students are being persuaded to pursue a curriculum designed to prepare them to go to college. They are told, rather vigorously, that mathematics, science, foreign language, and college preparatory English courses are important to the college-bound student. There is evidence that students well prepared in these areas have less difficulty in the required liberal arts courses in the first two years of college.

Even though the facts outlined above are important, counselors still have the responsibility to alert students and their parents to the many opportunities in the vocational areas for those students who do plan to go on to college. In states where surveys have been made, it has been found that fewer than 10 per cent of the jobs in business and industry require a college education. Many vocational areas which do not require college degrees are short of qualified personnel because few people are interested in entering these occupations or have the training for them.

Finances in college are becoming more critical for the student planning to attend. A great increase in the cost of a college education has been seen in 1971 and expectations are that this spiral will continue upward in the years to come. With the ever-increasing number of college students and college costs, the criterion for financial aid to these students has changed from academic promise to that of need. Most colleges have changed their requirements to make sure those students receive aid who need assistance most. Students who come from moderate to well-to-do homes must finance their college education on their own. If they were trained in business skills, they would have the necessary requirements for securing part-time jobs that might mean the difference in their attending the college of their choice.

Counselors should be aware of the trends in business and industry; they will then be able to give advice to those planning the curriculum in the respective schools. Good vocationally oriented courses in the business field should be encouraged. The terminal student who does not go on to college needs training to give him a better chance of securing employment upon graduation from high school. One of the major responsibilities of the vocational counselor is to make a survey of the community to determine job opportunities to help the school officials select courses of study which prepare students for employment.

The vocational counselor, because of his contacts with business and industry can help the vocational teachers in another way — job placement for students. He can help students by making them aware of the opportunities for employment. He can aid the teachers by keeping them informed of community needs. He should also conduct short- and long-term follow-up studies to measure the effectiveness of the total program.

ROLE CONCEPT OF THE DISTRICT VOCATIONAL DIRECTOR

Wide variations in the authority and responsibilities of local directors will be found within the broad guidelines set by governmental agencies. A function common to the director's role regardless of local system size or administrative philosophy is that of overall program leadership. The vocational director must provide the intellectual climate and broad policy guidelines for a quality program in business education as well as in other occupational areas.

Creating a healthy intellectual climate and establishing policy guidelines is not synonymous with being the dominant force in curriculum development and instructional process. Because a director must maintain responsibility to a wide range of curriculum areas, it is impossible for him to be an "expert" in all of them. The director should help identify priorities and overall educational needs as the framework in which the business teacher will function. The director should place his trust in the business education teachers for actual curriculum development and implementation.

Program and staff self-assessment should be the legitimate concern of the business educator. The director should work with business educators to develop, implement, and improve an organized assessment program. He must give the staff the emotional security and technical expertise necessary to make assessment a positive tool of education.

ROLE CONCEPT OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

Present pressures upon the schools and society compel a re-evaluation of the long-standing concept that a majority of young people must go on to college. Considerable attention must be focused on all vocationally oriented programs and on business education in particular. This in turn demands a new and expanded commitment to business education and the portions of the program which are most practical and most applicable to the work world, and proper attention to the needs of those who continue their education after high school graduation.

The school administrator must develop an increased awareness of business education offerings and the needs of students. He must provide necessary support in terms of adequate staff, materials, and equipment. More important is the need for the administrator to provide a climate in which such instruction is given proper status and emphasis in the total school program.

The business education staff must be held accountable for the value and relevance of course offerings. There should be assurance that innovation and change, based upon firm foundations, are part and parcel of the thinking of faculty members as they analyze present programs and plan for the new. There should be evidence that increased consideration is given to using community resources and talents to the greatest possible degree.

Essential to all this is a united effort on the part of the administrator and business education staff to make learning more practical, more useful and more desirable. They must cooperatively seek the support and understanding of the business community, the school counselor, the total school staff, the board of education, and the community as a whole.

COURSE GUIDELINES

Dr. Thomas B. Martin
Advisory Committee Member
Illinois State University
Normal

The contribution which the business education program makes to the achievement of the goals of an education institution will be dependent upon the leadership provided by an informed administration, the preparation and dedication of the business teachers, the adequacy of instructional facilities, and the extent to which meaningful and relevant learning experiences related to business activities are made available to students. Business education in the secondary school can provide these learning experiences only if programs are continuously evaluated and revised in light of the demands of a constantly changing society in which today's students must function. Guidelines which have been developed by business educators for implementing new and evaluating existing programs for personal and vocational business preparation should be helpful to both administrators and classroom teachers in their continuing efforts to improve the quality of education in the comprehensive secondary school and the area vocational center.

The proposals for each program and the suggestions included in the subject outlines should be viewed as guidelines rather than rigid patterns to be followed by all schools. Business education in the secondary school should be designed to meet the needs of those students who are preparing to seek employment in business upon graduation, those students who expect to pursue vocational business training in post-secondary institutions, and all secondary students, regardless of vocational or professional goals, who must function on a day-to-day basis in a complex economic society. Because of the necessity for preparing students with differing goals in life to cope efficiently with everyday business situations, the aims for both programs and subjects have been generally stated in the form of student centered behavioral objectives.

The extent to which the suggested programs and subjects should be incorporated into the curricular offerings of a secondary school will depend upon such factors as the objectives of the total school program, the student enrollment, the employment opportunities for graduates, the post-secondary education plans of students, the social and economic characteristics of the community served, the educational preparation and experience of faculty, and the instructional facilities available. Through the use of these guidelines, school administrators, curriculum supervisors, guidance counselors, and beginning and experienced business teachers should be better prepared (a) to understand the place and purpose of business education in the secondary school, (b) to evaluate existing programs and subjects in business education, (c) to assure that adequate business education opportunities are afforded all students, and (d) to improve classroom instruction in all subjects ordinarily offered by business education departments.

BASIC BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC EDUCATION

Writers

Dr. E. Carl Hall, Chairman
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville

Dr. Ted Boduch
Morton West High School
Berwyn

Mr. Richard Brink
Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction
Springfield

Mrs. Shari G. Bryant
Money Management Institute of Household Finance Corporation
Chicago

Mr. Sidney Drain
Maine Township High School West
Des Plaines

Mr. Allan Vogelsang
Rantoul High School
Rantoul

BASIC BUSINESS

Basic business is the contribution of business education to general education, and is the name given to the non-career learnings of business education. This area has as its content concepts that are needed by almost everyone who lives in our business world whether he is a producer, consumer, or voter — he may be all three.

The name "basic business" was chosen in 1956, in New York City, by twelve educators especially concerned about basic business. Perhaps it is not the best name, but it has remained over the years. It is used for classifying business education articles in the *Business Education Index*. The *Business Education Forum* devotes one issue each year and an article every month to this topic. Other media, too, use the term, basic business.

The emphasis in basic business as to concepts changes from time to time. After Sputnik, experts in basic business education believed that it should have considerable economic emphasis because the USSR had stated that it would bury us economically. During war escalation years, the emphasis changed to business concepts of production, trade markets, and other phases of economics. In recent years stress has been placed on consumer education in this "age of consumerism." For the past fifty years the pattern has been the same, changing each decade.

Basic business education is for everyone; it is needed by all to help solve their problems.

A consumer may have problems of credit. Has the passage of the Consumer Credit Protection Act solved his worries of high rates of interest? Does the Food and Drug Administration make all foods and drugs safe for consumption?

As a producer, he may be concerned about labor problems. What are his resources when employees are dissatisfied? Will the rise and/or fall of the economy bring about his bankruptcy?

As a citizen, he must make wise decisions based on economic theory. He sees himself, family, and others affected by inflation, unemployment, taxes of all kinds, government expenditures.

Behavioral Objectives for Basic Business Education

A student completing the basic business offerings should be able to clarify his personal value system; create sound decision-making tools compatible with his value structure; identify and discriminate among alternatives available to him in the marketplace; appreciate his responsibilities and rights as a consuming member of our society; and conscientiously fulfill his role as a productive participant in a basically free economic system.

Courses, Placement, Grades

Many areas of education cannot be a one-shot course. English, social studies, and other areas are taught from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. Basic business is similar in several ways to social studies and both need to be a continual growth process. New concepts, repetition of old ones, and deeper understandings are developed year after year. Basic business learning must be continuous.

Two or three years of the secondary school should be devoted to basic business: one year in the ninth and/or tenth grade, while at least another year in the eleventh and/or twelfth grade. A two-course sequence is desirable. Basic business courses have many names.

Ninth and tenth grade course names: general business, introduction to business, business fundamentals, business survey, business and society, consumer problems.

Eleventh and twelfth grade course names: business principles, business management, American business, advanced basic business, consumer problems, consumer economics, economics, business economics, personal economics, business law, consumer law.

Although standardization of names would simplify and clarify basic business courses, the area of basic business education is not standardized in concepts and, therefore, need not be so in name. In each school and in each community, the courses should be meaningful and planned for the needs and interests of the students and the business community.

It is recommended that the two-course sequence be called Business I and Business II. Because of the mandate in *The School Code of Illinois*, another course called Consumer Education should be added which may be offered in cooperation with other departments.

Units of basic business education can be inserted in subjects other than those strictly called basic business. These may be from two to four weeks in length. Some examples are:

1. A consumer credit unit in a marketing course.
2. A profit motive unit in accounting.
3. A money management unit in office practice or at FBLA meetings.
4. A consumer frauds unit in business communications (complaints in oral and written expression).
5. An educational costs unit in a guidance session.

The Changing High School Affects Basic Business Education

Let us consider the administrative and curricular changes often brought about by student demands and decisions of parents and other citizens.

Modular Scheduling. The length and number of periods devoted to basic business classes vary considerably in the modern high school. They may be forty minutes in duration, but only meet three days a week. They may be thirty minutes in length if a lecture is given to a large number of students. The lecture may occur once in the six-day cycle with small discussion classes held three or four times for longer periods of time.

Interdisciplinary Cooperation. In consumer education in Illinois, on recommendation of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, several departments of the high school may teach various phases of this area of basic business.

One excellent technique is team teaching. The business teacher can best teach insurance and investments, the home economics teacher does very well with the buying of goods and services, the social studies department understands consumer rights and responsibilities. The representative from each discipline should prepare illustrated lectures, behavioral objectives, materials, and evaluations for his specialty.

Types of Courses

Traditional. When a basic business textbook is used exclusively, the course is said to be traditional. The chapters are read in class, then the questions at the end of the chapter are answered. The teacher dominates. Problems at the end of the chapter are ignored. The standardized tests and evaluation techniques are considered in a rigid manner. The use of the workbook will continue the traditional view if the short-answer type materials serve as homework, class study assignments, while again research projects are eliminated.

The preceding statements are not meant to criticize textbooks. Modern ones suggest many good aids and techniques, but these are often omitted by the traditional teacher. The textbook should be used as a guide. It needs to be adjusted to the students and to the community and current business news.

Innovation. To be innovative, the course should keep up with change — change in content, techniques and materials. The class should be student centered with the teacher serving as a consultant, a guide, a manager, and a resource person, working with topics of current interest to the students in that community.

In content, environmental problems should be added. New consumer problems are constantly arising. Government and business may have added conflicts. Often a headline can be the beginning of a controversial but interesting and meaningful unit.

In techniques, individualized instruction has the present day emphasis with its special objectives and learning centers. Tomorrow it may be an expansion of the school without walls or possibly without formalized class meetings.

In materials, it is no longer a well-written pamphlet alone that has relevancy, but a cassette player which records a television or radio program that is discussed in basic business class the next day.

Resource Centers. More and more schools are developing resource centers for each department or the total school. In addition to the customary library references, multi-media materials are added. Multiple textbooks from various disciplines, class sets of programmed instruction, a half-dozen copies of one cassette, a dozen copies of a particular pamphlet and paperbooks are on hand so that the resource center can be used by classes of basic business students.

BUSINESS I (GENERAL BUSINESS)

Statement of Philosophy and Objectives. The course offered as the first business subject has evolved into a course which embodies objectives and activities of more meaningful depth and variety. The late 1950's introduced economic concepts and the problem solving approach to business and economic problems. The general business student in the 1970's no longer is solely concerned with the mechanics of check writing but goes beyond this learning activity to understand the role of demand deposits (checking accounts) as a part of Federal Reserve monetary policy. Students are encouraged to think about the relationships of individual business-economic decisions and the aggregate effects these decisions have on the entire domestic and international economic scene.

Students who complete Business I should be able:

A. To examine those business and economic decision-making problems which affect them as individuals and as aggregate members of our society.

B. To develop an attitude of concern for business and economic problems.

C. To utilize problem solving skills — know how to define a problem, gather information, identify goals, consider alternative ways of achieving goals, analyze consequences of selecting different methods of achieving goals, and make a choice.

D. To become acquainted with the institutions and mechanisms of the American free enterprise system and how they are integrated to satisfy human wants and needs.

E. To develop a minimum level of competence in computational skills as related to earning income, budgeting, saving, buying, investing, using credit, insuring, and paying taxes.

F. To relate business and economic learnings to their interests and needs.

The following outlines of content for Business I are suggested:

I. POPULAR TYPE
   A. What Everybody Should Know About Business

   B. American Business and Our Economic World

   C. You as a Consumer
      1. Managing your money
      2. Problems of the consumer
      3. Using credit wisely
      4. Making money payments
      5. Building financial security
      6. Sharing economic losses

   D. You as a Worker
      1. Earning an income
      2. Joining labor organizations

   E. You as a Citizen
      1. Sharing the cost of government
      2. Understanding our economy

II. ECONOMIC EMPHASIS TYPE
   A. Consuming Goods and Services
      1. Scarcity concept
      2. Consumer price index

   B. Producing Goods and Services

   C. Money and Banking
      1. Monetary policy for economic stability
      2. Inflation and deflation

   D. Earning and Managing Income
      1. Real and money income
      2. Circular flow of income

   E. Saving and Investing

   F. Credit

G. Economic Security
  1. Unemployment
  2. Wage and hour laws

H. Problems of Labor-Management Relations

I. Government Expenditures, Taxes, and Borrowing
  1. National debt
  2. Fiscal policy for economic stability

J. Measuring National Income

K. International Trade

L. Farm Problem

M. Other Economic Systems

N. Career Planning

Business II

Business II is an advanced basic business course. It is not consumer economics, business law, or economics. It emphasizes business knowledge, skills, and understandings of our economic world.

Business II should follow Business I (General Business). If Business I is taught in the ninth or tenth grade, then Business II may be offered in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Considering the type of students and the business community, Business II may be either for terminal high school students or those who are college bound. For those entering the business world shortly (they may have part-time work at the time of enrollment in the course), the content in Business II shall help them to understand the problems of business and labor and how both are affected by government in our American enterprise system. For the future College of Business student, Businsss II offers an opportunity to confirm his higher educational goals. As younger students in Business I, they began their concern for business, but as older students they need to give it greater breadth and especially depth of thought and knowledge. The business problems of local, state, and national scope change from year to year.

Although a text called Business II is not available at the present time, multiple sets of books could be used — economics, business principles. A good supply of paperbacks, free supplementary pamphlets, current business-oriented magazines, and current audiovisual aids will make an interesting, popular, and very relevant course.

Content

- Business and Society
- American Capitalism
- Investments
- Labor Problems
- Business Ethics
- Records Management
- Accounting as a Tool of Management
- Legal Considerations in Business
- Managerial Process
  - Finance
  - Production
  - Marketing
- Fiscal Policy
- Monetary Policy
- Biographies of Successful Businessmen

Business I and II Activities

Tried and True:

1. Bulletin board displays
2. Chalkboard explanations
3. Class discussions
4. Demonstrations, skits
5. Exhibits
6. Field trips, interviews, community observations
7. Films, film strips, slides
8. Giving pre-tests and post-tests
9. Group or committee work
10. Interpreting charts, graphs, etc.
11. Library research
12. Oral reports by individual students

13. Panel, forum, jury trial, debate
14. Solving problems
15. Student collections for opaque projector
16. Using newspapers, magazines, booklets for up-to-date information

Newer and Effective:

1. Concepts
2. Community resources
3. Free and inexpensive materials
4. Games
5. Independent study
6. Mini-lectures
7. Multi-media
8. Problem-solving
9. Programmed learning
10. Role-playing

Concepts

Concepts in basic business may be expressed in a word, a phrase, or a sentence or two. Perhaps a complete sentence is the most meaningful. The concise statement should be of such importance that it will be remembered for a long time, analyzed frequently, and re-evaluated in the light of current happenings. The concept will remain basic after its examination.

Consumer, producer, citizen concepts are all economic and are often indistinguishable by each segment of the business society. The following are examples of different viewpoints:

Consumer concepts
  The cost of consumer credit is expensive.
  Comparison of prices, quality, preparation, storage is valuable in buying food.

Producer concepts
  Improvements in technology change job opportunities.
  Choices of the consumer, producer, government determine what goods and services shall be produced.

Citizen concepts
  Every citizen has unlimited wants and limited resources.

The benefits from tax money need to be examined periodically.

Use the concepts as a basis for a unit. Create behavioral objectives and related student performances for that concept. Develop learning experiences, case problems, and research the truth of the concept. Emphasize concepts with audiovisual aids, chalkboard, bulletin board, and overhead projector.

Community Resources. In some communities, a class may go on a field trip to a local market or a nearby industry. However, with heavy concentration of population, inconvenient and costly transportation, "mod" schedules, and disturbances, the realistic field trip oftentimes cannot be taken.

As a substitute, a student or two may take his recording equipment (tape, cassette) and, supplied with questions created by his class, visit the business to obtain answers to the questions. He then returns to his class with responses to their inquiries.

Letters, too, can be sent to businesses asking for information and materials.

Speakers from business, shopping surveys, opinionaires of consumers all bring the community into the classroom.

Free and Inexpensive Materials. In recent years free and inexpensive materials appear to be of better quality. They present facts clearly and effectively. Most of them are unbiased. It is well to remember that in 1961, the Materials Evaluation Committee of the Joint Council on Economic Education selected only 97 out of 7,000 available items.[1] These were evaluated for business education use. The business educator should choose just a few of the best.

An illustration of a free business sponsored pamphlet:

Managing Personal Income
Accepting Credit Responsibility
(with teacher guide for each)
Family Financial Education Program
Public Affairs Division
Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Company
Lock Box H
Chicago, Illinois 60609

Order a copy for each student.

---

[1] Olsen, M., et al. Teachers Guide to Economics in Business Education Curriculum, New York: Joint Council on Economic Education and National Business Education Association, 1962.

An illustration of a government-sponsored aid:

Credit Matters
Department of Consumer Sales, Weights and Measures
City Hall, Room 808
121 North LaSalle Street
Chicago, Illinois 60602

Paperbacks, as everyone knows, flood the book market. A chosen few:

Cox, E., R. C. Fellmeth, J. E. Schulz, *Nader's Raiders* (FTC) New York: Grove Press, 1969 $1.25

Peter, L. J., & R. Hull, *The Peter Principle,* New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1970 $1.25

Shortney, J. P., *How to Live on Nothing.* New York: Revised, 1971 $.95

All the above material can be used in various ways: individual instruction, group discussion, oral or written reports, supplemented with study guides.

Inexpensive materials come from current daily newspapers, weekly news magazines, business and government newsletters, etc. Because of modern copying machines, copies of these news items can be made quickly. The copy may be for a transparency for the class to analyze or it may be an individual printout for each student.

Games

Computerized Management Game. The point in the computer age has been reached where classroom application of computer technology is a reality. Experimentation at the ninth and tenth grade levels with a computerized game has proved to be exceptionally worthwhile as a means of integrating previous learnings and challenging students to make critical managerial decisions. The game cost per student is equivalent to the price paid for workbooks.[1]

Groups of three or four students form their own corporations and compete against fifteen other groups within the same class or students from another course such as bookkeeping or principles of management. Each group is issued the same amount of capital at the beginning of the game. The game has a duration of fourteen weeks and requires approximately thirty to forty-five minutes of time per week. Students make decisions concerning the purchase of raw materials, sale of products, loans, factory construction, inventory control, pricing, stock issuance, stock dividends, and with a variety of other situations such as labor strikes.

---

[1] *Computerized Management.* Computer Games, Inc., Post Office Box 544, Chicago Heights, Illinois 60411.

Students indicate their weekly decisions on punchout IBM cards (using a ballpoint pen or a pencil) and these are sent to the computer game headquarters (Chicago Heights, Illinois) where they are processed. Computer printout sheets are produced on a weekly basis showing the results of the students' decision. The results are mailed back weekly showing comparative standings of all participating corporations. The computer printout sheets show weekly income and balance sheet statements for each corporation.

The value of this educational tool is that it reinforces and integrates previously acquired student learnings related to supply, demand, and prices. The students are able to see functional applications of financial statements. They become active participants in a learning activity instead of passive receptors of lecture presentations.

Stocks and Bonds Game. This activity is an excellent means of developing or culminating a unit of study on the stock market. Students form committees and each group invests a hypothetical sum of $5,000. Students are given descriptive information on a variety of securities and make initial purchases. The game proceeds with rising and falling security values, declaration of dividends and stock splits. Miniature securities are issued to the students to simulate security ownership. This activity also has served to reinforce and integrate previous learnings.

Independent Study. Basic business teachers believe that economic education is needed by all students. Perhaps all students cannot master all the concepts and skills required, but they should learn as much as possible within their capabilities. Each student progresses at his own rate of learning.

The entire class would understand charge accounts, borrowing money from several financial institutions, the cost of credit, analyzing credit advertisements, etc. By establishing behavioral objectives a large group can share common experiences.

A small segment of the class can go beyond the basic essentials of credit. Some may wish to survey local consumer credit cost, others may be interested in business credit, and others in the Consumer Credit Protection Act (Truth-in-Lending Law). Again problems, panels, and projects can be the vehicles for learning. Each group progresses at its own rate.

But there remains the independent thinker, the individual student who sees beyond the family credit problems or the borrowing of businessmen. What is the present day monetary policy of the Federal Government? What is the status of the public debt? What is our international money relationship? Here the individual work, the independent study completes the individual progression — total group work, small group work, individual work.

Mini-Lectures. Mini and Maxi are terms in popular use. The college lecture (30-60 minutes) given in the secondary school is a maxi-lecture and has no place in a high school class. Mini-lectures are needed at certain times. They should be from three to twelve minutes in length, perhaps longer in a high school with modular scheduling if the lecture is given once in the cycle. These lectures may be more effective if combined with transparencies.

Illustrations of mini-lectures:

	Minutes
Inconsistencies of TV Commercials	3
Opportunity Cost	5
Foundations of Capitalism	8
Finding the True Interest Rate	12

Mini-lectures are based on content (subject matter) and differ from an explanation of a student activity such as a library lesson, identifying sources of information, or checking solutions to problems.

Multi-Media Materials. To update the audio-visual aids of yesteryear, units called multi-media have been arranged by teachers, schools, businesses, and publishers. These units are not only the film and film strips formerly used separately, but are a package deal for emphasis on the combined read, write, see and listen techniques. These materials vary. The overhead projector with either its business-suggested or teacher-created transparencies is very effective. The new cassette, again prepared by a publisher or recorded by student or teacher, combined with film strips and slides is growing in popularity. If the video-tape, cassette recorder, and/or slides are combined with self-teaching printed materials (programmed instruction) the arrangement becomes individualized.

Evaluations of the multi-media should be made by students and teachers. These may be oral and/or written. Often a previously prepared sheet is a handy and readily used aid.

These up-to-date multi-media materials have expanded in the consumer education field.

1. *A Primer for Consumer Thinking*
   A series of ten transparencies with instructor's guide
   Educational Services Division
   Consumers Union of U. S., Inc.
   Mount Vernon, New York 10550
   c. 1970 Cost $15.00

2. *The Consumer Revolution*
   A set of color slides with a written copy of script, $15.00
   Tape recording of script, $5.00
   Total Cost, $20.00
   Topics Included: Consumer Revolution — What it is; Why it started; Where it is going; How businessmen can respond; Ten questions every businessman must answer.

3. *A Resource Kit for Teaching Consumer Education*
   A kit including posters, pamphlets, charts, cartoons, games, reading and resource list (for teachers and students), student activities file, role playing situations, transparency masters, and forms.
   Total cost, $22.00
   Topics Included: Earning; Spending; Budgeting; Borrowing; Saving

4. *Consumer Protection Slide Set*
   80 2" x 2" slides (color) with accompanying written script.
   Total Cost $16.00
   Topics lucluded: The Gyp Game; The Protection Team; Food and Drug Administration; Federal Trade Commission; Post Office Department; State and Local Agencies; Attorney General's Office; State Department of Agriculture; State Insurance Department; State Departments of Health and Banking. This material is geared to the State of Iowa.
   Visual Instruction Service
   Iowa State University
   Science and Technology
   Ames, Iowa

5. *Be Credit Wise*
   Based on the booklet *It's Your Credit—Manage it Wisely*
   A color filmstrip with an accompanying record of the script; also a written script is included.
   Total cost $2.50
   Topic: Credit Use and Management
   Money Management Institute
   Household Finance Corporation

Prudential Plaza
Chicago, Illinois 60601 c. 1970

6. *Truth in Lending*
What Consumers Should Know about Truth in Lending
A color filmstrip with an accompanying record (33⅓ rpm).
Total Cost $5.00
Topics Included: Truth in Lending: Information for Consumers
Federal Reserve Board
Washington, D. C. 20551 c. 1969

7. *Consumer Filmstrip Series*
A set of three filmstrips in color.
Total Cost - Free
Topics of Filmstrips: Our Role as Consumers; Consumers in the Marketplace; Consumers in Action
Institute of Life Insurance
277 Park Avenue
New York, New York 10017 c. 1968

8. *Prosperity Without End?*
November 1969 - The New York Times Sound Filmstrip on Current Affairs. A filmstrip with accompanying record (33⅓ rpm) and discussion manual and duplicating master for handouts.
Total cost - $9.00
Topic: Prosperity Without End?
The New York Times
Book and Educational Division
229 West 43rd Street
New York, New York 10036 c. 1969

9. *Patterns for Protection*
Presenting the Homeowners Insurance Policy
A filmstrip in color with accompanying record (33⅓ rpm).
Total Cost - $5.00
Topics Included: Property and Perils — Standard Form: Broad and Comprehensive Forms; Requirements for Insurability; Liability Coverage
Insurance Information Institute
117 West 46 Street
New York, New York

10. *Automobile Insurance*
A color filmstrip with accompanying record (33⅓ rpm).
Total cost - Free
Topics Included: Part 1-Bodily Injury Coverages; Part 2-

Property Damage Coverages; Part 3-How the Cost of Insurance is Determined
Insurance Information Institute
117 West 46 Street
New York, New York c. 1968

11. *Money Management Filmstrip Library*
Six color filmstrips with accompanying study guide - $1.75 each.
Total Cost - $7.00
Filmstrip topics: Your Money and You; You, the Shopper; Managing Your Clothing Dollars; Spending Your Food Dollars; Your World and Money
Money Management Institute
Household Finance Corporation
Prudential Plaza
Chicago, Illinois 60601

12. *Modern Consumer Education*
A complete multi-media, self-instructional program for teaching consumer education.
Total cost: $274.50 with cassette player
$249.50 without cassette player
Topics Included: Food, clothing, and shelter; cars, furniture, and appliances; Protecting Family Health and Security; You and the Law; Ways to Handle Money; Ways to Shop
Items Included: 39 lessons; 27 programmed texts; 13 audio cassettes; 2 filmstrips; 180 student record books (30 each of six modules); Instructor's manual; cassette tape player (optional)
Spencer Division
Grolier Education Corporation
845 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10022

13. *Consumer Education*
A series of ten packets covering these topics: (1) Buying on Time; (2) The Retail Installment Contract; (3) Shopping for Money; (4) Getting More for Your Money; (5) Banking Services; (6) Fraudulent Selling; (7) Shopping for Clothing; (8) Shopping for Food; (9) Discount and Seasonal; (10) Landlord-Tenant Relationship.
Total Cost - $20.00 per packet. Each packet contains:
    A. Lesson plans with background information for the teacher; student worksheets, A for nonreaders and B for readers.

B. A filmstrip, tape recorded narration, and teacher's manual

C. A manual including ten transparency masters

D. Class sets of 25 recording disks for distribution to class members

Publications Division
National Education Association
Washington, D. C. c. 1968

Perhaps the radio programs (commercials) and television programs (special on consumer/economic problems, new commentaries, speeches) can be recorded on cassettes by students and teachers. A program at home in the evening becomes a lesson in the classroom the next day. Some classrooms now have radio and television sets.

Problem-Solving - Decision-Making. Economic life calls for many decisions. These judgments may be reasoned ones or quick emotional reactions. Frequently the latter bring about more problems to solve, so that logical steps for problem-solving are suggested. They are:

1. Identify your problem
2. Establish the possible alternatives
3. Evaluate the alternatives
4. Put your alternatives to work
5. Re-evaluate the chosen alternative regularly.

Illustration:

1. Tom has a big decision to make. He has been working and saving his money. Part of the savings will pay for a trip on the Denver Zephyr to Colorado where the parents of his pal have a mountain cabin. He has one hundred dollars extra. How shall he spend it? It is a big problem.
2. Tom will need about $50 for extra expenses. The other $50 left could be spent on several choices called alternatives. Tom listed his choices: camera, ski lessons, new luggage — all called alternatives.
3. For this big decision he found it necessary to evaluate each of the alternatives. Why should he buy a camera, luggage, or lessons for skiing? He spent considerable time evaluating his alternatives.
4. After considerable thought on the alternatives, his decision

was to buy a camera. He realized that he could relive his trip by looking at the pictures of his friends and the Rockies in later years. He thinks that he has made a wise decision.

5. After Tom returns from his trip, he will be able to say if his decision was a wise one. It is good to re-evaluate your decision. Tom will re-evaluate his decision.

Programmed Learning

Programmed learning is a device used for initial or remedial instruction, with or without machines which:

(a) Recognizes individual differences by beginning where the learner is and permitting him to proceed at his own pace.

(b) Requires that the learner be active.

(c) Provides immediate knowledge of results.

(d) Emphasizes the organized nature of knowledge because it requires continuity between the easier concepts and the harder ones.

(e) Provides spaced review in order to guarantee the high order of success that has become a standard requirement of good programs.

(f) Reduces anxiety because the learner is not threatened by the task. He knows that he is learning what is required and gains the satisfaction that this knowledge brings.

An excellent set of programmed instructional units is available for consumer education prepared by members of Alpha Phi Chapter, Delta Pi Epsilon, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, 1970. These were published by the Division of Vocational and Technical Education in Springfield, but at the present time (July 1971) there are no more copies available. It is possible that the national office of Delta Pi Epsilon will continue publishing these; inquiry may be made to Dr. Ellis Jones, Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, Minnesota.

The units include an instructor's handbook, general principles of consumer purchasing, budgeting and managing money, using consumer credit wisely, buying goods (food, clothing, household appliances), buying services, purchasing and maintaining automotive products and services, using leisure time, energy and money, housing, making use of insurance, savings and investments, consumer taxes, and consumer rights and responsibilities.

Role-Playing. Role-playing has increased in importance recently as young people wish to be actively involved.[1] Although plays have been written and can be presented by student players with rehearsal, the roles played without a script may be more relevant. Either the teacher, a student, or a committee chairman may serve as a director. He suggests the situation, decides on the number of participants and the role of each. He may give each "actor" very brief directions, or a few key concepts written on a small card.

For example:

Concept: Collective Bargaining

Union representative #1 (boy)

Ask for 18% increase in wages, two-year contract. Be tough, unreasonable, selfish. Use abusive language. Never relent.

Union representative #2 (girl)

Ask for fringe benefits, longer coffee breaks, recreational facilities. Be polite but positive. Be considerate, thoughtful of others. Eventually concede to portion of demands.

Other directions for company representatives and mediator may need to be devised.

The students who have watched television all their lives can interpret their roles with a high degree of competency. Their fellow classmates will learn a great deal from the performance.

TEACHER REFERENCES IN BASIC BUSINESS

National Business Education Association. *Two Decades of Partnership in Economic Education.* Washington, D. C. 20036. National Business Education Association, 1969. $2.00 each.

Joint Council on Economic Education. *Teaching Personal Economics in the Business Curriculum.* New York, N. Y. 10036: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1971. $2.50 each.

Joint Council on Economic Education. *Teaching a Course in Personal Economics.* New York, N. Y. 10036: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1971, $2.50 each.

National Business Education Association. NBEA Yearbook No. 8, *The Emerging Content and Structure of*

---

[1] Lowe, Ross E., "Varying the Routine in Consumer Education Classes." *Journal of Business Education.* November and December, 1969.

Business Education. Washington, D. C. 20036: National Business Education Association, 1970. $5.75; Chapters 2, 12, 21, 23, 24, 25.

CONSUMER EDUCATION

Legislation. To develop more informed and effective citizenship with personal economic competence, the 75th General Assembly passed and the Governor approved Senate Bill 977 which amends *The School Code of Illinois* (Section 27-12:1) requiring that:

> "Pupils in the public schools in grades 8 through 12 shall be taught and be required to study courses which include instruction in consumer education, including but not necessarily limited to installment purchasing, budgeting, and comparison of prices."

This law was passed in August, 1967. In June, 1968, the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction published the *Guidelines for Consumer Education*.[1] It states three basic plans for the inclusion of consumer education into the secondary school curriculum:

"First, it is possible to designate several courses as appropriate offerings to meet the consumer education requirement and to permit students to elect one of these courses. A school might decide, for example, that one of the following courses would be required of all students: General Business (Introduction to Business, Basic Business); Consumer Problems (Consumer Economics); Home and Family Living (Home Management); Economics.

"Second, a school might develop a specific course devoted to consumer education and require that all students take this course.

"A third means of implementing Senate Bill 977 is to integrate consumer education into all (or selected) subject areas."[2]

The revision of the Guidelines is in progress. The subject matter content of instruction in consumer education will include:

I. The Consumer in the Market Place

II. Money Management

III. Consumer Credit

---

[1] Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. *Guidelines for Consumer Education*. (Springfield, Illinois, 1968)

[2] Ibid., 57-58

IV. Buying Goods and Services
  A. Housing
  B. Food
  C. Transportation
  D. Clothing
  E. Health (drugs and cosmetics)
  F. Recreation
  G. Furnishings and Appliances

V. Insurance

VI. Savings and Investments

VII. Consumer Taxes

VIII. The Consumer in the Society and the Economy

Each unit will consist of:

1. An introductory paragraph giving a statement of rationale
2. Objectives
3. A suggested outline of content
4. Suggested activities (for a wide range of abilities of students)
5. Selected resources

This second edition of the curriculum publication will reflect new trends, issues, and events.

Teachers of consumer education may obtain a copy of *Guidelines for Consumer Education*, Second Edition, State of Illinois, from the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois 62706, free of charge.

BUSINESS LAW

In a time when the structure of law itself is being challenged, changed, and interpreted, the study of business law is even more relevant to our students as citizens.

Description. Primarily, business law is designed to stress the contractual obligations arising out of sales, insurance, bailments, and a multitude of other daily activities that students will encounter. The success or failure of such a course depends upon the relevance that the instructor places on each unit. Business Law is not the place to train the Perry Masons or Clarence Darrows of tomorrow, but rather a place to inform the college and non-college bound students of the pitfalls that can befall them in our business world.

Grade Placement. Business law *must* be taught in light of our recent and ever-changing society. The student must be made aware that our democracy works because the law is ever changing, taking into account the needs and desires of the people which it serves.

The importance of a business law course can never be fully appreciated, but its value can never be denied. How the course is implemented into the program is a matter left to the discretion of each school district.

Traditionally, law has been either a semester course coupled with economics, business organization, democracy, government, or some other elective granting a one-half credit to each; or it has been a full-year course providing one full credit. Usually, and rightfully so, it is limited to juniors and seniors.

Another effective way of implementing business law is through a team-teaching situation where the student receives nine weeks of law with nine weeks of data processing and/or consumer education, office machines, salesmanship, and management. The course would involve two to four teachers, each specialized in a given area, and rotating the groups of students to the teachers.

Objectives. No matter which plan or curricular pattern the instructor elects to follow, there are certain basic objectives that should be stressed in presenting business law.

The student should be able:

1. To value with pride and respect our legal system and the men who serve it.
2. To be acquainted with a set of workable principles that can be applied to our economic system.
3. To understand the elements of a contract that pertain to minors.
4. To distinguish between the various types of contracts and the requirements of same.
5. To understand our judicial system from the local courts to the Supreme Court of the land.
6. To perceive the idea behind insurance and its benefits.
7. To differentiate intelligently between the legal and the illegal phases of business.
8. To support our business system, our country, and our constitution.

Outline for year course:

I. FOUNDATION OF LAW

- A. Origin and Development of Law
  - 1. The nature of law
  - 2. The history of our American system
  - 3. The study of business law
- B. Torts and Crimes
  - 1. How the law deals with private wrongs
  - 2. How the law deals with business crimes
  - 3. How the law distinguishes between a crime and a tort
- C. Courts and the Function
  - 1. State court system
  - 2. Federal court system

II. FORMATION OF BUSINESS CONTRACTS

- A. What are Contracts?
  - 1. Social and moral contracts
  - 2. Implied and oral contracts
  - 3. Expressed and required contracts
- B. The Contractual Agreement
  - 1. The offer
  - 2. The acceptance
- C. The Competency of Parties
  - 1. The adult
  - 2. The minor
  - 3. Others the laws protect
- D. The Legality of Subject Matter
  - 1. Legal vs. illegal subject matter
  - 2. Agreement in violation of the law
  - 3. Agreement against public policy
  - 4. Agreements in restraint of trade
- E. Consideration and Legal Form
  - 1. What is consideration
  - 2. Legal form
  - 3. Cautions to be observed
- F. Statutes of Frauds and Limitations
  - 1. Fraud
  - 2. Limitations of our rights
- G. Assignment and Operation of Contracts
  - 1. Assignment of contracts
  - 2. Operation of contracts

- H. Termination
    1. Termination by performance
    2. Termination by agreement
    3. Termination by operation of law
    4. Termination by breach of contract

III. LAW OF SALES

- A. What is a Sale?
    1. Personal property sales
    2. Real estate sales
    3. Installment sales
- B. Title Transfer
    1. General rule
    2. Exception to general rule
- C. Performances and Enforcement of Sale Contract
    1. Warrants and guaranties
    2. Breach of contract
    3. Remedies for breach

IV. LAW OF PROPERTY

- A. Classification of Property
    1. Personal property
    2. Real property
- B. Ways of Acquiring Property
    1. Personal property
    2. Real property
- C. Transfer of Property
    1. Personal property
    2. Real property
    3. Wills and gifts
- D. Real Property
    1. Deeds
    2. Estates and wills
    3. Eminent domain and easements

V. INSURANCE

- A. What is Insurance?
    1. Theory of insurance
    2. History of insurance

- B. Casualty Insurance
    - 1. Property insurance
    - 2. Liability insurance
    - 3. Special insurances
- C. Life Insurance
    - 1. Types of insurance and uses
    - 2. Living benefits vs. death benefits
    - 3. Termination of policy
- D. Health and Accident Insurance
    - 1. Hospitalization
    - 2. Accident
    - 3. Disability

VI. AUTOMOBILE INSURANCE

- A. Liability Insurance
    - 1. Property damage
    - 2. Bodily injury
    - 3. Medical payment
- B. Collision Insurance
    - 1. Types of collision
    - 2. Upset vs. collision
- C. Comprehensive Insurance
    - 1. Vandalism
    - 2. Fire, theft, and windstorm
    - 3. Glass breakage
- D. Uninsured Motorist
    - 1. Reason for uninsured motorist insurance
    - 2. Mandatory insurance

VII. LAW OF BAILMENTS

- A. Nature of Bailment
    - 1. Mutual benefit
    - 2. Unilateral bailment
- B. Rights and Duties of Parties
    - 1. Rights of bailee and bailor
    - 2. Duties of bailee and bailor
- C. Exceptional Bailment
    - 1. Types of exceptional bailment
    - 2. Law regulating exceptional bailment

VIII. LAWS OF RENTING

- A. What is an Interest in Real Estate
    - 1. Landlord-tenant relationship
    - 2. Leases
- B. Right of Transfer
    - 1. Sub-leasing
    - 2. Breach of contract

IX. LAW OF EMPLOYMENT

- A. Who Can Work?
    - 1. Minors in the work world
    - 2. Law protecting the minor
    - 3. Right to work laws
- B. Employer-Employee relationship
    - 1. Employee's rights and duties toward the employer
    - 2. Employer's rights and duties toward the employee
- C. Social Legislation
    - 1. Social security
    - 2. Unions and civil rights

X. BUSINESS ORGANIZATION

- A. Types of Business Structures
    - 1. Sole owner
    - 2. Partnership
    - 3. Corporation
- B. Government-owned Companies
    - 1. Legal monopolies
    - 2. National security laws
    - 3. Licensing of companies and individuals

Since many schools may want to present law as a nine-week or one-semester course, the following areas are suggested as an alternate plan. This is in no way an absolute program and it should be varied according to the area and needs. For a nine-week course:

Unit I. Foundation of Law
II. Formation of Business Contracts
IV. Law of Property
VI. Automobile Insurance

For a one-semester course:
Unit I. Foundation of Law
II. Formation of Business Contracts

III. Law of Sales
IV. Law of Property
V. Insurance
VI. Automobile Insurance

Instructional Methods and Techniques. In order to maintain interest and promote a good continuous learning situation, the classroom activity should be as varied as possible. The methods listed below may be used as a guide for the instructor. They serve as performance goals for the instructional objectives cited earlier; the numbers in parentheses refer to specific objectives:

1. Skits (2, 3, 4, 5, 8)
2. Role playing (2, 3, 4, 5, 8)
3. Buzz groups—four to six students (4, 6, 7)
4. Newspaper related activities (2, 3, 6, 7)
5. Writing of simple legal briefs (3, 4)
6. Mock trials (1, 5, 8)
7. Staged argument by teacher (3, 4, 6, 7)
8. Field trips (all)
9. Crossword puzzle tests (4, 7)
10. Business organization papers (3, 4, 7)
11. Guest speakers (1, 6, 7, 8)
12. Audiovisual materials—either self-made or commercial

Classroom teachers encounter many problems in presenting law, chiefly because they try to use traditional approaches. As in all business subjects, the classroom should extend beyond the walls of the school.

Field trips will yield much value in developing and maintaining interest. The Criminal Court Building, the F. B. I., the Consumer Fraud Division, Narcotics Court, Better Business Bureau—these are only a few of the possibilities for worthwhile adventures.

When a skit or impromptu role playing is used in the law class, break the students into teams—defense, plaintiff, jury, judge. Assign different responsibilities to each, depending on their respective roles in the courtroom drama.

In "staging" an argument with a student or a member of the faculty, do so within hearing distance of the law class—but preferably outside of the classroom so as to make it more authentic. Then quiz the students on what they heard and have them compare notes. Explain the value of such testimony and show how it can be misinterpreted.

When students write simple legal briefs, demonstrate how to separate fact from hearsay and evidence from opinion; show consumer values in case of personal legal entanglement.

Vary not only the presentation, but also the method of measuring the student's retention ability by using oral recall, true-false tests, crossword puzzles on terminology, team effort drills on short-answer questions, unannounced quizzes, and case studies.

The class should be relevant to the student's needs, not necessarily his wants, although both must be considered. Above all, be creative! Welcome questions and challenge!

ECONOMICS

Philosophy and Objectives. The economics course should provide a meaningful introduction to contemporary economic problems. Emphasis should be placed on those concepts, understandings, and facts necessary to make individual and group decisions of economic consequence. In order to make such decisions, the students must conceptualize the economic institutions and framework of our economy: the factors of production, marketing mechanisms and price determination, capital formation through banking, savings, credit, insurance, and corporate investment plus government support and regulation.

Equipped with an overview of the economic structure of our nation, the student is then able to study the relationship of the various economic institutions and how they interact in the economic process. To be able to acomplish this objective, the student must equip himself with the analytical tools of this discipline. Knowledge of supply and demand interacting with prices, monetary and fiscal policy, consumer-price indexes, government price support programs, real income and real gross national product growth provide the student with the means necessary to engage in a rational approach to economic problems.

It is strongly recommended that students be given in-depth experiences in the problem-solving approach in their study of economics. The axiom should be to cover fewer topics but teach in greater depth.

Grade Placement. Grades eleven or twelve
Length of Course. A one-semester or a one-year course
Content

I. THE IMPORTANCE OF ECONOMICS AND THE NATURE OF ECONOMIC UNDERSTANDINGS
    A. The Revolution of Rising Expectations
    B. What Economics Is and What It Is Not
    C. Who is Affected by Economic Decisions?

II. THE CENTRAL ECONOMIC PROBLEM IN ALL SOCIETIES
    A. Economic Wants
    B. Consumption, Consumers, and Consumer Goods and Services
    C. Production and Producers
    D. The Importance of Productivity
    E. Scarcity and Abundance
    F. Need for an Economic System

III. THE MODIFIED MARKET ECONOMY OF THE U. S.
    A. Private Enterprise Economy
    B. Profits and the Profit Motive
    C. The Circular Flow of Income
    D. Markets
    E. Demand and Supply
    F. Prices
    G. Monopoly and Competition
    H. Anti-Trust Laws
    I. Regulation of Public Utilities
    J. Economic Role of Government

IV. ECONOMIC GROWTH AND STABILITY
    A. Economic Growth
    B. Economic Stability—Recession and Inflation
    C. Measuring the Performance of the Economy
    D. Main Forces Determining the Level of National Production and Income
    E. Fiscal Policy for Economic Stability
    F. Money, Banking, and Monetary Policy for Economic Stability

V. DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME
    A. Market Determination of Income—Money and Real Income
    B. Economic Justice
    C. Role of Profits
    D. Personal Distribution of Income
    E. Labor, Wages, and Labor Unions

F. Farm Incomes
G. Economic Security

VI. U. S. IN THE WORLD ECONOMY

A. Importance of World Trade and Investments to U. S.
B. Underdeveloped Economics—Growing Pains
C. Economic Problems in World Trade

VII. OTHER ECONOMIC SYSTEMS[1]

B. Economic Stability—Recession and Inflation
(Various texts develop systems in different countries or areas; e.g., India, Soviet Union, Western Europe, etc.)

Developmental Guidelines for Economics

Initiating a New Unit of Study. Before a unit of study is developed, it is extremely important that students be placed in a receptive frame of mind for learning. This can be achieved by relating the material to the students' interest, background, or experiences. This approach lends itself well to the problem-solving techniques and student-teacher planning.

The teacher is no longer a purveyor of information but a guide to methods and sources of information. By informal suggestion from the teacher, committees are organized to gather information from various sources. The exchange and evaluation of the information is also planned cooperatively between the teacher and the students by means of classroom activities such as debates, panel presentations, or some other group dynamics approach. The key to the entire process is student involvement and teacher guidance.

Supplementary Materials. The economics teacher should have a file of material dealing with the various topics of the economics course. Pamphlets, newspaper and periodical clippings containing pro and con arguments on economic issues should be made available in the economics classroom for student use. The following publications make excellent adjuncts to the ready reference materials in the classroom: *Wall Street Journal, Business Week, Nation's Business, U. S. News and World Report,* and *Saturday Review*; Federal Trade Commission Bulletins; and the *Illinois Business Review,* College of Commerce, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois (free).

---

[1] Based on a great extent on an outline suggested by a publication of the Joint Council on Economic Education titled *Teachers Guide to Developmental Economic Education Programs,* John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1964.

Independent Study. Many schools have independent study programs available for students. The teacher and student agree at the beginning of a semester what material will be covered by the student through independent study. This may involve reading several books and preparing book reports or studying programmed instruction material. Tests are taken on the programmed instruction material as the units of study are completed.

Behavioral Objectives. One of the most important developments is the preparation of unit objectives in behavioral terms. This approach has the advantage of defining specifically in written form what is to be accomplished by the student. There are four essential elements to such objectives: they are written, in performance terms, with minimum acceptable levels of performance, and with clear suggestions for evaluation. Tests are based only on the stated objectives. For an excellent rationale and explanation of behavioral objectives, write to Croft Educational Services, Inc., 100 Garfield Avenue, New London, Connecticut 06320, for *Professional Report No. 4,* "The What, Why, and How of Behavioral Objectives" by John W. Wick, (1970).

An example of a behavioral objective for the first unit of study might be: Through notes taken from library research, analyze the doctrines of David Ricardo, Thomas Carlyle, Thomas Malthus, Milton Friedman, John Kenneth Galbraith, and Walter Rostow in regard to the statement that economics is a "dismal science." Be prepared to discuss the pros and cons of their views in small buzz groups in class. Be prepared to state at least three rational reasons why you agree or disagree with each of the economists named.

Evaluative Devices

Science Research Associates publishes a secondary school level economics test which was prepared by leading economists, educational psychologists, and high school educators. The Joint Council on Economic Education uses this instrument in pre-testing and post-testing to evaluate the students' progress in their experimental programs. Each test item was pre-tested for reliability on thousands of students in a nationwide evaluation of the instrument. The test is well balanced in coverage of the basic areas of micro- and macro-economics. There are two forms of the test with fifty multiple choice items on each test.

National norms have been established for each test item. It is possible, using the interpretive manual, to determine how one's students compare in performance on both pre- and post-testing with the national norms. Tests, interpretive manual, and answer sheets may be purchased from Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611. (1964 Teacher's Review set, $1.25)

Since the problem-solving approach and student-centered activities are such an integral part of economics, evaluation cannot be confined to essay and objective type test items. Evaluation must include student efforts in research and reporting. Written book reports, oral presentations, case studies, and role-playing are additional activities which lend themselves to evaluation.

With the emphasis on behavioral objectives, construction of test items should be related directly to properly stated objectives which include minimum acceptable levels of performance accompanied by clear evaluation suggestions.

Evaluation of Basic Business Courses

Evaluation of basic business courses is frequently considered difficult, but it need not be so. Perhaps three guidelines will help the basic business teacher:

1. Establish behavioral objectives and evaluate these objectives. Illustration: "Given a list of activities designed to create an interest in consumer credit, participate in three of them with an above-average concern, creativity and care." Use the evaluation procedures prepared by the class.
2. Activities may vary in a unit and change from unit to unit. Interviews, oral or written reports, bulletin board displays, tests on facts, group work, individual study, programmed material, role playing are a few of the activities that may be evaluated separately. Then three or four are combined to compose a unit grade.
3. Realize that this area of general education must be graded subjectively and explain this type of evaluation to the students at the beginning of the semester. During the first week ask the students to write one hundred words on why or why not to borrow money. Establish a grading procedure before the work begins. Perhaps three reasons will rate an "A"; maybe two reasons with an illustration for each will also be worth an "A." Teach paragraphing and/or listing items. For each activity, the teacher and students should establish the evaluation procedures.

SELECTED REFERENCES IN BASIC BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC EDUCATION

National Business Education Association. *Two Decades of Partnership in Economic Education*, Washington, D. C. 20036: National Business Education Association, 1969, $2.00.

Joint Council on Economic Education. *Teaching Personal Economics in the Business Curriculum*, Joint Council on Economic Education, New York, N. Y. 10036: 1971, $2.50.

Joint Council on Economic Education. *Teaching a Course in Personal Economics.* New York, N. Y. 10036: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1971, $2.50 each.

National Business Education Association. NBEA Yearbook No. 8, *The Emerging Content and Structure of Business Education*, Washington, D. C. 20036: National Business Education Association, 1970, Chapters 2, 12, 21, 23, 24, 25, $5.75.

Office of Consumer Affairs. *Consumer Education Bibliography.* Washington, D. C. 20402: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1971. 65c.

Money Management Institute of Household Finance Corporation. *Your Guide for Teaching Money Management*, Chicago, Illinois 60601: Money Management Institute. 1968, 25c.

TEACHER REFERENCES IN ECONOMICS

A teacher of economics should write to the Joint Council on Economic Education, 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10036, and ask for its recent *Checklist*, a six-page list of its materials. Some of those on the March, 1971, *Checklist* are recommended:

#112 *Study Materials for Economic Education in the Schools.* 1969, 70 pp., $1.50

# 86 *Bibliography of Games-Simulations for Teaching Economics and Related Subjects.* 1969, 18 pp., $1.00

#126 *Teaching Personal Economics in the Business Curriculum.* 1971, 116 pp., $2.50

#127 *Teaching a Course in Personal Economics.* 1971, 96 pp., $2.50

#128 Volume 8: Report of 1969-70 Awards Programs entries, *Economic Education Experiences of Enterprising Teachers.* 1971, 120 pp., $1.25

If separate teaching units on inflation, depression, pollution, taxation, etc., are desired, these are available.

JCEE also recommends materials which must be purchased at other places:

Test of Economic Understanding. Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Ill. 60611, Review set, $1.25

Two Decades of Partnership in Economic Education. National Business Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036 1969, 69 pp., $1.00

PERSONAL-USE SKILLS AND STENOGRAPHIC CAREER OBJECTIVE

Writers

Dr. Doris H. Crank, Chairman
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb

Dr. Floyd L. Crank
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb

Mrs. Dorothy Buerkle
Alton Senior High School
Alton

Mrs. Mary Ellanson
Oak Lawn Community High School
Oak Lawn

Mrs. Barbara Nichols
Monmouth High School
Monmouth

PERSONAL-USE SKILLS

Early aims and purposes of business education subjects in the past were almost exclusively vocational. Very little thought or attention was given to designing course offerings for those needing skills for personal use. In numbers of cases, students were discouraged from taking business subjects; or, if they managed to enroll, they found the objectives strictly vocationally oriented.

We are living in new times, and the obligation of business education to serve youth may well be of prime consideration even before refining and updating traditional skill objectives. The trend suggested might be one of liberalizing while still providing specialization for mastering job-holding skills. This would mean providing offerings that are designed to acquaint *all* students with the skills of the business world that touch the lives of *all* citizens, then proceeding to the special needs of those who are going out of high school to earn a living.

A first step has been taken in opening typewriting to students whose interest is not its use vocationally. Note-taking represents another attempt to expand business education to include students with needs that can be met by such a course.

No one can project accurately where these beginnings may lead, but the challenge is with us in these skill subjects. By including provisions for training more and more students, business education will meet the increasing need for young people to learn how to participate more effectively—and with skill—in our democratic capitalistic community with business and trade connections that are global.

PERSONAL TYPEWRITING

Description. Personal typewriting is a course designed to provide students with a usable typewriting skill. It is usually elected by those students who desire the skill for personal use. Essentially the course is the same as the first semester of Typewriting First Year, except that a minimum of time is devoted to business problems and applications. Major emphasis is given to manuscript typing, personal letters, and composition at the typewriter.

Objectives. Individual personal typewriting objectives should be developed to enable the student:

1. To use the touch system (a systematic fingering) of typewriting.
2. To use both manual and electric typewriters, and to be able to manipulate those machine parts that add to the efficiency of a typist.
3. To be accomplished in the skill of proofreading and to be able to correct errors successfully.
4. To typewrite mailable personal business letters including carbon copies, friendly notes, postal cards, and envelopes.
5. To typewrite outlines in an accepted style.
6. To typewrite manuscript papers—themes, book reports, and term papers which include footnotes, title pages, table of contents, and bibliographies.
7. To typewrite simple tabulated statistical tables.
8. To evidence a facility in typewriting numbers and symbols.
9. To transfer thoughts to paper at the typewriter (composing at the typewriter).
10. To fill in simple printed forms using the typewriter.
11. To evidence ability to maintain the typewriter, including changing the ribbon and cleaning the type.

12. To apply to problem typing the basic rules of English usage and correct typewritten form (capitalization, punctuation, word division, correct spacing, correct expression of numbers).

Grade Placement. The degree to which a student achieves skill in typewriting is dependent upon his physical maturity and manual dexterity. For this reason, some experts believe that the offering of personal typewriting should be delayed until the eleventh or twelfth grade. In practice, where this course *is* offered in the high schools, it may be offered at any level from the ninth through twelfth grade, depending upon the philosophy of those administering the program.

Content. The following course content is suggested for personal typewriting.

I. MACHINE MANIPULATION
    A. Machine Parts
    B. Keyboard (letters; numbers; and special keys)

II. STRAIGHT COPY TYPEWRITING

III. PROOFREADING AND CORRECTING ERRORS

IV. CENTERING (VERTICAL; HORIZONTAL; SPREAD HEADINGS)

V. PROBLEM APPLICATIONS
    A. Announcements, Notes, and Messages
    B. Outlines
    C. Letters
    D. Envelopes, Postal and Index Cards, Fill-in Forms
    E. Carbon Copies
    F. Tabulation
        1. Simple tables (statistical and others)
        2. Columnar headings
    G. Reports and Manuscripts
        1. Footnotes
        2. Title pages
        3. Tables of contents
        4. Bibliographies
    H. Composition at the Typewriter
        1. Script copy
        2. Rough draft copy
        3. Proofreader's marks

Instructional Methods, Techniques, and Aids. The instructional methods, techniques, and aids recommended for use in first year typewriting apply to the teaching of typewriting for personal use.

Typewriter parts are introduced and used *as needed* during the first weeks of the typewriting course. A constant program of practice is maintained during the entire course to develop fluency and control of typewriting. Cleaning typewriter type, care of typewriters, and the changing of typewriter ribbons should be taught as needed.

Standards. Standards designed for the first semester for the Typewriting First Year course are applicable to the course in Personal Typewriting.

SELECTED REFERENCES

The same basic references as those listed under Typewriting First Year would apply to Personal Typewriting.

NOTE-TAKING

Description. Note-taking is a course designed for college-preparatory students in which the main emphases are: taking class notes, listening and converting ideas expressed by others into capsule statements, and recording original writing or communication. Since the chief purpose of instruction is to help the student develop the ability to capture the main points of the original meaning, no effort is made to develop verbatim reporting ability.

Several different choices of shortened writing systems, combined with longhand, are applicable to help a student achieve a personal-use abilty of rapid writing. Teachers, counselors, students, and parents must know that note-taking is not considered to be vocational in nature. In some schools the note-taking course may be combined with a personal typewriting course to make a one-year pattern. For skills and knowledge acquired in a note-taking course to be the most valuable, a student should have developed typewriting skill either previously or in conjunction with this course. Because the teaching of the course involves many of the same learning elements found in the teaching and learning of shorthand, it is strongly recommended that the teacher be a certified shorthand teacher.

Objectives. The student will be able:

1. To organize ideas he hears, reads, or creates and records in outline, note, or narrative form the essence of these ideas by means of a system of writing which is faster than longhand.

2. To write fluently and accurately a shortened system of writing.

3. To read fluently, accurately, and with understanding, from a self-written shortened system of writing.

4. To write automaticaly a large vocabulary of frequently used words.

5. To use notes taken in outline, note, or narrative form as an immediate reference and as a source of future study without the necessity of transcribing the notes into another form.

6. To use the note-taking skill as a means of compiling resource information, writing a paper in rough draft form, and revising and editing before the typing of the final draft.

7. To integrate the skills of writing in note form and the transcribing of them into a report, term paper, or research paper.

The following techniques are suggested to help develop specific skills.

A. To develop automatization to sounds and frequently used words and brief forms.

    1. Writing quickly and accurately frequently used words and brief forms, pronounced at the rate of approximately 10-15 per minute, and then transcribing these words with 98 per cent accuracy or better.

    2. Spelling and reading rapidly and repetitively from the chalkboard, both in unison and individually, several sample words written according to theory principles.

B. To develop fluent reading ability when reading from plates and self-written homework notes, as well as developing necessary punctuation usage.

    1. Using plate material (and all students drypenning), a student will read the day's homework lesson fluently and accurately, inserting necessary punctuation and giving reasons for such insertions.

    2. Using self-written homework notes (and with all students drypenning), a student will read the homework lesson fluently and accurately, inserting necessary punctuation and giving reasons for such insertions.

C. To develop an ability to listen to a lecture, select essential ideas and facts, and record these facts and ideas in a form usable for study.

   1. Practicing the recording of selected ideas and facts gleaned from a lecture using longhand and symbols in a combination of outline and narrative form to serve as the basis for review.

   2. Using the notes taken from a lecture, the student will answer correctly questions regarding the lecture.

D. To develop skill in using resource materials as a source of notes for a research paper, writing the paper in a combination of longhand and symbol form, revising it using proofreader's marks, and then typing the paper from this rough draft into final form.

   1. Utilizing the instructional materials center, the student will research a topic, take notes on cards using a combination of longhand and symbols and will then prepare a rough draft of this material in narrative style.

   2. After revising the rough draft using proofreader's marks, the student will then rewrite the report in complete and acceptable research paper format, including footnotes, table of contents, and bibliography.

Grade Placement. The year in which a student enrolls in note-taking depends upon his personal objective. He should enroll for the course as near as possible to the time that he expcts to utilize the skill. Hence, note-taking might be offered at all grade levels in the secondary school.

Content.

1. Understanding the principles of note-taking.
2. Learning principles of writing by sound.
3. Learning frequently used words and abbreviated forms.
4. Developing study patterns for use of study time and materials.
5. Developing reading and note-taking abilities.
6. Developing organizational ability when taking notes.
7. Developing listening ability and listening habits.
8. Developing ability to use note-taking forms when composing original writing.

9. Using note-taking forms when taking notes for research papers.
10. Using note-taking forms when writing a research paper in rough draft form.
11. Using proofreader's marks to edit a research paper.
12. Typing the research paper into final form.
13. Using note-taking forms for class discussions, listening to audio tapes, listening to and viewing audiovisual media, and taking minutes at meetings.

Instructional Methods and Techniques. For a course in notetaking to be valuable to the student, it is necessary for him to develop an automatic response to a large vocabulary of words; to develop listening and selecting abilities which enable him to choose and record the essential ideas heard in lectures, class discussions, films, filmstrips, and other audiovisual media; and, to develop a reading and selecting ability to record quickly the essential ideas of materials read. In order to fulfill these objectives, the following learning activities are recommended:

1. Drill repetitively from the chalkboard both in reading and writing of common words, phrases, and brief forms to develop a complete automatization of frequently used words and phrases.
2. Drill repetitively from the chalkboard on both the spelling and saying of families of words which apply certain theory principles so the student will develop a response to sound and a theory knowledge sufficient to enable him to respond quickly to words heard or read.
3. Have people from the community and teachers from various departments of the school present speeches and talks to the class to give students experience in taking notes on different subject matter and from different people. These speeches or talks can be taped in order to develop a library for future use.
4. Provide class presentations on how to listen to and select ideas, followed by exercises applying these listening and selecting ideas. Samples of the notes taken during the exercise may be illustrated on the overhead projector, on the chalkboard, or handed out in duplicated form.
5. Provide class presentations with practice in outlining and taking notes from panel and class discussions, tapes,

films, filmstrips, and student reports. When the presentation is finished, the teacher can show on an overhead the format of correctly taken notes from such a presentation. Correctly taken notes would involve the outlining method, the combination of longhand and symbols, and the underscoring of main ideas. The teacher will need to give practice in the use of such notes in a review procedure when studying for a test and the cycling procedure for review that is necessary for learning and retention of ideas.

6. Allow the students to choose the subject for an individual research paper; teach them how and give the opportunity to use library resources to locate information for this paper; teach them how and give the opportunity to record information on note cards, assemble the information into a first-draft or rough draft term or research paper written in a combination of symbols and longhand, refine the draft by using proofreader's marks into a second draft, and type from the draft into a complete manuscript with footnotes, table of contents, and bibliography.

By using a team teaching approach and an inter-disciplinary approach, a wealth of different lectures can be used to provide the student with the necessary note-taking skills for use in college classes.

Instructional Aids. The most helpful materials for use in teaching note-taking are:

1. A library of taped talks presented by the teacher, other faculty members, and/or community persons.
2. Films, filmstrips, records from which students can take information in note form.
3. Periodicals, newspapers, and other reference materials which can serve as source and practice exercises in note-taking coupled with reading.
4. Teachers' manuals developed to be used in conjunction with the textbooks.
5. *Business Teacher* and *Business Education World* magazines which detail methods of teaching note-taking.
6. Spelling lists, dictionaries, and vocabulary lists to help develop writing skills.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Lemaster, A. J. "Notehand in Today's Curriculum," *Business Education World*, January-February, 1970, pp. 20-23.

Poe, Roy W. "Notehand: A Backward—and Forward—Appraisal," *Business Teacher*, November-December, 1967, p. 5.

Zoubek, Charles E. and Roy W. Poe. "Q's and A's on Notehand and Notemaking," *Business Teacher*, September-October, 1968, pp. 21-22.

STENOGRAPHIC CAREER OBJECTIVE

Stenographic education in the secondary school is an area of study designed for those students who have a strong interest and sincere desire to become stenographers upon graduation, for students who are planning to enter college to major in a two- or four-year stenographic program, for students who are planning to enter college to major in business teaching, or for students who are planning to enter college and will need to work in order to defray college expenses.

The 1970-71 *Occupational Outlook Handbook* reports that about 2.5 million persons were employed in 1968 in occupations requiring stenographic skills. Employment opportunities for workers who possess stenographic skills are expected to be very good throughout the 1970's, in fact, such opportunities are expected to total more than 230,000 each year. About 700,000 people were employed as typists in 1968 and approximately 60,000 new typist job opportunities are expected throughout the 1970's.

As businesses expand in complexity and size and the amount of paperwork increases, positions will continue to be created. Technological changes in dictating, duplicating, and office machines are not expected to affect very greatly the need for employees in the stenographic and secretarial areas.

Philosophy. Students who desire to prepare for stenographic careers should have an opportunity to obtain this preparation in the secondary schools of Illinois. By beginning typewriting instruction in the tenth grade, enrolling for beginning shorthand in the eleventh grade, continuing advanced typewriting in the eleventh or twelfth year, and culminating the stenographic preparation with advanced shorthand, office practice, and/or cooperative office experience, a student will be prepared to fill a stenographic position upon graduation. For students wishing to pursue a college education, such preparation will provide the background for further education as well as providing those skills and abilities necessary for part-time employment while in college.

Objectives. Each student who completes the stenographic career sequence of study should be able:

1. To qualify for a secretarial or stenographic job and be prepared to the degree that she can experience success and advancement in that job;
2. To perform the specfic secretarial duties of office management and decision-making at a high level of proficiency;
3. To perform proficiently the stenographic duties of taking dictation, transcribing dictation, using transcribing machines, and typing;
4. To perform the related clerical duties required in a stenographic position;
5. To evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of employment in stenographic positions and to choose wisely from the varied types of job opportunities available;
6. To exhibit good work habits and attitudes that will make the individual an efficient employee; and
7. To exhibit personal characteristics of initiative, alertness, discretion, punctuality, honesty, sincerity, loyalty, dependability, and cooperativeness.

Stenographers are employed by public and private organizations of practically every size and type. Public stenographers and some reporting stenographers are self-employed. Large numbers of those with stenographic training work for manufacturing firms, government agencies, insurance companies, financial institutions, medical facilities, education institutions, and for physicians and attorneys.

In most instances, high school graduates will be expected to start in beginning positions labeled "stenographer" and, through experience and additional study, advance to positions of greater responsibilities.

Subjects and Grade Placement. To be prepared to successfully fill a stenographic position upon graduation from high school or to provide background for further education beyond high school, the following sequence is recommende[illegible]

Tenth Grade: Typewriting First Year

Eleventh Grade: Shorthand First Year or Machine Shorthand, Typewriting Second Year

Twelfth Grade: Shorthand Second Year or Advanced Machine Shorthand, Stenographic Office Practice

Other Electives: Business I, Accounting First Year, Business Communications, Clerical Office Practice, Introduction to Data Processing, Economics, Office Machines, Cooperative Office Education.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Hopke, William E. *The Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance*, Volumes I and II. Doubleday and Company, Inc., Garden City, New York, and J. G. Ferguson Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1967.

National Business Education Association Yearbook, No. 7, "Business Education Criteria for Evaluating Business and Office Education." National Business Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1969.

National Business Education Association Yearbook, No. 8, "The Emerging Content and Structure of Business Education." National Business Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1970.

National Business Education Association Yearbook, No. 9, 1971. "Contributions of Research to Business Education." National Business Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1970.

Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1970-71 Edition. United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 1650.

TYPEWRITING FIRST YEAR

Description. First-year typewriting is designed to develop basic typewriting skill for both personal and occupational application. Typewriting skill is of value to all students because it is a rapid and efficient means of communicating. In addition, typewriting skill is an integrated part of any program attempting to help students fulfill a secretarial or clerical career objective. *All* students in high school should be encouraged to enroll in typewriting, either to fulfill personal-use or occupational goals.

Objectives. The beginning typewriting student will be able:

1. To demonstrate correct posture and position at the machine.
2. To demonstrate correct key stroking, operation of service keys, and other typewriter mechanisms.
3. To demonstrate complete automatization of the typewriter keyboard, including number and symbol keys.
4. To demonstrate stroking facility on straight-copy and problem-copy material.
5. To demonstrate stroking accuracy on straight-copy and problem-copy material.
6. To originate copy at the typewriter; to think and typewrite simultaneously.

7. To demonstrate the ability to arrange problem copy: business letters, tabulations, manuscrips, outlines, and other forms of business papers with vertical and horizontal centering.
8. To demonstrate mastery of information which would include spacing before and after punctuation marks, typing of numbers, capitalization, uses of punctuation forms, and typing book and magazine titles and articles.
9. To demonstrate mastery of the techniques of proofreading and correcting errors.
10. To demonstrate proper typewriter care, including ribbon changing.
11. To demonstrate ability to type forms involved in applying for a position.
12. To exhibit desirable personal qualities and attitudes.

Grade Placement and Class Scheduling. First-year typewriting may be offered at any grade level; however, most business educators recommend that it be offered at the tenth-grade level in the secondary school.

The degree of success in typewriting depends upon the degree to which individualized instruction is provided. It is necessary for the teacher to make continuous assessment of the progress of students to help them recognize their deficiencies and, thereby, determine appropriate corrective procedures. Enrollment, therefore, should be limited to the number of students who can be served effectively by the teacher.

Beginning typewriting classes are usually grouped heterogenously; however, homogeneous grouping can facilitate instruction. Probably the simplest method of homogeneous grouping might be to schedule sections simultaneously. After a few weeks of instruction, students can then be shifted from one section to another. Those with a greater degree of skill development can progress individually and rapidly while the teacher of the "slower" group might even wish to reteach basic techniques.

Content. The following course content is suggested for first-year typewriting:

I. MACHINE MANIPULATION OF LETTERS, NUMBERS, AND SPECIAL KEYS

II. STRAIGHT COPY TYPEWRITING OF SENTENCES AND PARAGRAPHS

III. PROOFREADING (Proofreader's Marks, Error Correction; Punctuation; Word Division)

IV. CENTERING SKILLS (Horizontal, Vertical, Spread Headings)

V. PROBLEM APPLICATIONS

- A. Outlines
- B. Envelopes; Postal Cards, Index Cards, Inter-Office Communications
- C. Business Letters
  1. placement and styles
  2. two-page, half-sheet, etc., letters
  3. carbon copies
- D. Tabulation (Tables, Columnar Headings, Ruled and Boxed Charts)
- E. Statistical Typewriting
- F. Script and Rough Draft Typewriting; Composition at the Typewriter
- G. Manuscript Typewriting (One-Page Reports); Bound Manuscripts; Footnotes; Title Pages; Tables of Contents; Bibliographies)
- H. Duplication (Carbon Copies; Stencil, Fluid, and Offset Masters; Copy Machines)
- I. Employment (Application Letters and Blanks; Personal Data Sheets)

VI. PRODUCTION TYPEWRITING

- A. Business Letters with Carbon Copies and Envelopes
- B. Tabulation
- C. Manuscript Reports
- D. Non-typewriting Skills (Inserting and Removing Paper; Correcting Errors; Arranging Supplies; Collating)

VII. TYPEWRITER CARE (Cleaning; Changing Ribbons)

Specific, well-directed speed and control development should take place throughout the entire course. Drills, with well-defined goals, should be used frequently to develop accuracy and speed.

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The findings of experimental and empirical research provide direction to the most appropriate effective techniques regarding the teaching and learning of typewriting.

Psychology of Learning a Skill. Learning typewriting, as well as other psychomotor skills, rests with student readiness to learn. Readiness to learn, however, appears to have less relation to age or interest than to the extent which the student has obtained all the prerequisites necessary for him to learn something new. Prerequisites to learning a skill include good form, instant recall of information, and adequate understanding—all elements of skill performance. Readiness to learn psychomotor skills probably occurs best when the learning climate is without interference. All information, understandings, and concepts needed for correct performance of a typewriting task, for instance, must be learned at times other than when increased performance skill is the goal.

Certain information is obtained by typing copy that contains specific matter; also, the process of working through "problem" copy under specific-direction conditions will enable the learner to obtain requisite information. Nevertheless, skill levels are increased more effectively when information is learned at times other than during drills designed to increase manipulative powers.

A student will not learn unless he is motivated to do so. Motivation then must come from the student internally rather than from external sources. The will to learn appears to be most highly developed in a learner when:

1. He knows the reasons for all requests for task performance.
2. He can recognize immediately, through rapid feedback, how well he is progressing toward the goal of the task he is performing.
3. He is successful in his efforts to achieve the goal of the task he is performing.
4. He is helped to recognize the corrective information needed to insure success in achieving the task goal.
5. He recognizes sincere teacher interest and concern in helping *him* do better.

All practice efforts for skill improvement should be short and intense as applied to drills on: keyboard, technique, speed and accuracy on straight copy, use of service keys and other mechanisms, backspace and vertical centering, business letters, manuscripts, and other materials on which students must develop skill. Practice efforts should be evaluated by both student and teacher to determine the extent of progress needed for corrections, but *should not* be marked for grading purposes. Successful performance requires that the student follows a continuous practice/check routine until mastery has been achieved. *All* practice drills should be directed and verbalized by the teacher in order to help the student recognize the corrective procedures that must be followed.

Speed of performance on all types of materials is best achieved when drills are short, intense, and teacher directed. The student should know reasons for drills and see progress made. Practice material should be easy and include guided writing practice. Proper posture and technique should be reflected during practice.

Accuracy of stroking on any type of material is best achieved when posture and technique are excellent and when a student types slowly enough to control his finger movements. Total attention must be focused on the material to be typed. The teacher should convince the student that he can type accurately.

The teacher's demonstration of all tasks to be performed is to be followed immediately by student emulation, assessment of quality of performance, and repeated teacher demonstration when necessary. Individual practice should then be provided to make routine these correct patterns.

Posture, Position, and Machine Manipulation. Standards are set and all methodology is devised on the assumption that correct posture, position, and machine manipulation are present. The following are imperative:

1. Feet flat on floor—8 to 12 inches apart to assure proper balance.

2. With the front edge of the typewriter even with the front edge of the desk, the typist sits 6 to 8 inches from the machine frame. The center of the typist's body is in line with the "j" key on the typewriter.

3. The typist sits well back in the chair and leans forward slightly from the hips.

4. The typist's fingers must be curved over the keys and his wrists parallel with the slope of the keyboard in order to make a ballistic stroke.

5. Elbows are held close to the sides of the typist to enable

the "weak" fingers to stroke keys with tips of fingers and with a ballistic stroke.

6. Except in the very early stages of learning a new key location, the typist must avoid glancing at the keyboard.
7. All service keys and mechanisms must be operated correctly and with a minimum of motion. A typist should understand the functions and uses of all operative parts.

Individualizing Instruction in Typewriting. Methods and techniques used to individualize instruction in typewriting include sound-slide and film-loop presentations, programmed instruction, multiple-channel equipment, pacers, simulation, videotaped instruction, and instruction via television. However, a teacher's floorwork activity during which he gives careful scrutiny to each student's typed copy is probably the most efficacious individualized instruction.

The following techniques for use in teaching typewriting illustrate the principles discussed previously.

1. During the early stages of learning, all assessment should be done on the basis of posture, position, and stroking techniques. Teacher demonstration, student emulation, constant teacher vigilance, (No teacher of typewriting should ever be sitting at his desk!), immediate feedback to students and actual grading are techniques to use.
2. Automatization of the keyboard is absolutely essential; all possible efforts must be made to discourage students from becoming hand watchers. Included should be continuous reminding to keep eyes on copy; keeping all practice moving briskly to encourage good habits; watching posture and positions; using frequent and easy location security drills; directing all drills carefully; keeping all drills and practice short; and, preventing the practice of bad habits.
3. The technique of keystroking is important enough to be a part of any evaluation during the early stages of learning.
4. To build stroking speed on straight copy, posture, position, stroking technique, and keyboard mastery must be flawless; all practice must be short (no more than one minute); repetitive practice for speed building is necessary; easy material should be used; let students know that you expect them to succeed; keep individual progress charts for all aspects of performance; help students

recognize ways that improvement can be made; use guided writings to help students pace themselves; use techniques that sometimes force speeds to higher and higher levels (short goal-setting drills are especially appropriate); and keep students informed of progress at all times.

5. To build stroking accuracy on straight copy posture, position, stroking technique, and keyboard mastery must be excellent; verbal inducement by the teacher is essential as a persuasive measure; use error boundaries within which students are expected to perform; use guided writings; employ teacher dictation; and postpone emphasis on accurate stroking for at least six weeks—preferably for nine to twelve weeks. A student cannot build speed and accuracy simultaneously on a given drill.

6. To build speed on "problem" copy, emphasize posture, position, stroking technique, and keyboard mastery; eliminate the "problems" by filling in all information prerequisites before expecting students to apply information to the "problem"; force speed by helping students refine manipulation techniques; give recurrent practice on problems (always short, intense efforts) and few grades; give verbal inducement to point out ways of improving; let students know as soon as possible how they are progressing; direct all drills; keep all practice short, intensive, and repetitive; and give students 5 to 8 minutes of individual practice on a problem (seldom longer) after correct patterns have been well established.

Instructional Aids. Benefits can be derived from any instructional aid that arouses the interest of a student about the subject of typewriting, that motivates the learner toward the desired objectives, and that facilitates the learning process.

Many of these instructional aids are audio-tutorial carrels and practice stations, bulletin boards, business forms used in community businesses, chalkboards, closed circuit TV, demonstrations, field trips, films, filmstrips, transparencies, individual progress charts, keyboard charts, multiple-channel listening stations, newspapers, pacers, posters, secretarial and business magazines, speakers, technique rating charts, textbook illustrations, videotaping, and workbooks. Various ways of using instructional aids are limited only by the imagination of the instructor.

Equipment for teaching typewriting. Equipment necessary for the best instruction in typewriting would consist of:

1. Posture chairs and sturdy adjustable typewriting tables or desks with an adjustable section. Tables should be 36″ by 20″ or larger and adjustable to heights of 27″ to 32″. Tables should have panels on three sides to provide more adequate support.
2. Electric typewriters are advised for use in both beginning and advanced typewriting classes. Typewriters should be almost totally elite type. Lettered keyboards are recommended.
3. A typewriter demonstration table or stand, adjustable for height and equipped with rollers, should be available.
4. Opaque and overhead projectors.
5. Copyholders.
6. Pacers, remedial stroking diagnostic equipment, and various other types of equipment to individualize instruction.
7. Stop watch and bell clock, timer.

Standards. Grading standards should be consistent with instructional objectives. Keeping in mind the importance of posture, position, keystroking techniques, and keyboard mastery, the following grading standards may be appropriate.

First Nine Weeks	*Per Cent of Grade*
Posture and position at the machine (as evidenced by frequent observation and recording on a technique rating sheet during the first grading period)	20
Keyboard mastery (as evidenced by the need to watch fingers and recorded from frequent observation)	20
Keystroking techniques (as evidenced by frequent observation of curved fingers, low wrists, and elbows held close to sides)	20
Gross stroking speed (average of three best one-minute timings for gross stroking with marks applied as follows) A — 40 B — 35 C — 30 D — 25	20
Work handed in (per cent of work handed in during grading period, even though ex-	

ercises were incomplete or inaccurate; use percentage grading standard adopted by the school)	10
Care of typewriter and work area	10

Second Nine Weeks

Position, posture, keystroking technique, and keyboard mastery (same evidence as for first nine weeks)	30
Stroking speed (with error limit; average of three best one-minute timings on straight copy material with no more than two errors, and with the following grading scale) A — 40 B — 35 C — 30 D — 25	20
Scores on information tests (average of all scores on paper-and-pencil tests on typewriting information: use percentage grading standard adopted by the school)	20
Scores on "problem" tests (average of all scores on problem tests during the nine-week period). If students learn to erase and correct errors, then all uncorrected errors should be penalized five or ten gross words. The teacher's manual contains grading standards. The following standards are suggested by the end of the nine weeks: 18 wpm — A 15 — 17 wpm — B 10 — 14 wpm — C 8 — 9 wpm — D If erasing is postponed to a second semester of instruction, students should be permitted two errors per minute, with the following grading standard at the end of the nine weeks: 30 wpm — A 26 — 29 wpm — B 20 — 25 wpm — C 15 — 19 wpm — D	20

Work handed in	10

Third Nine Weeks

Posture and technique	10
Scores on information tests	20
Speed in straight copy typing (average of three (or five) best one- or three-minute timings with one or three error limit and graded as follows) *One Minute* *Three Minute* 50 — A — 45 45 — B — 40 40 — C — 35 35 — D — 30	30
Scores on problem tests (average of *all* scores, with errors corrected, and with ten-word penalty for uncorrected errors; grading scales are in teacher's manual)	30
Work turned in	10

Fourth Nine Weeks

Scores on problem tests	50
Speed on straight copy (with error limit)	20
Scores on information tests	20
Work handed in	10

SELECTED REFERENCES

Business Education Association of Metropolitan New York, Yearbook. *Typewriting Methods in the Seventies*, 1970.

Georgia Department of Education, *A Guide for the Improvement of Typewriting Instruction*, Atlanta, Georgia, 1968.

Robinson, Jerry W. (Editor). *Practices and References in Teaching Typewriting*, Monograph 117. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1967.

Russon and Wanous. *Philosophy and Psychology of Teaching Typewriting*. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1960.

West, Leonard J. *Acquisition of Typewriting Skills*. Pitman Publishing Corporation, New York, 1969.

TYPEWRITING SECOND YEAR

Description. The second-year course in typewriting is vocational in purpose and is designed to help students who are preparing for a business career to develop vocational competency in typewriting. Whenever possible, it is suggested that this course be offered as a separate two-semester course. In some instances it may be integrated with office practice.

Objectives. Objectives for the first year of typewriting will serve as a basis for instruction during the second year. In cases where the fulfillment of the first-year objectives appears to be minimal, remedial drill will need to be employed. In addition to the objectives listed for first-year typewriting, a second-year typewriting student will be able:

1. To complete with at least 95% accuracy "information" tests which include typing necessary information for successful performance in typing (i.e., punctuation, capitalization, expressions of quantities and measures, spacing, letter styles, business forms).
2. To type many different kinds of business documents and forms in acceptable style.
3. To type business documents and forms with an acceptable degree of speed and accuracy.
4. To type business documents and forms so that they are usuable and mailable.
5. To exhibit personal qualities of neatness, promptness, dependability, cooperation, accuracy, and willingness to complete a task correctly.
6. To explain the flow of work activity in the various tasks that a typist performs in the office.
7. To change a typewriter ribbon correctly and give necessary care to the cleaning of the typewriter and the work area.
8. To be willing to conserve supplies used in typing jobs and to use time to attain the greatest productivity.
9. To proofread accurately and correct errors in such a manner that materials would be mailable.
10. To state rules or guides for the selection, purchase, and proper conservation of office supplies such as stationery, carbon paper, typewriter ribbons, and correction tape and erasers.
11. To type master carbons, stencils, and offset mats.

Grade Placement and Prerequisites. The second-year typewriting course is usually offered at the 11th or 12th grade level. A student attempting to develop skill in order to fulfill a stenographic career objective should enroll in second-year typewriting concurrently with first-year shorthand, during the 11th grade. In schools where a student does not expect to enroll in office practice, office procedures, or cooperative office education during the 12th grade, advanced typewriting might be taken at the 12th grade level.

Inasmuch as some typewriting skill is basic to nearly all office work, no prerequisites for the second-year typewriting course should be set. Rather, consideration should be given to grouping together students with comparable skills based upon progress made in the second semester of first-year typewriting. An alternative proposal is to substitute a one-year clerical typewriting course with enrollments limited to students who earn a grade of D in the second semester of first-year typewriting. In some instances, the clerical typewriting class may need to relearn basic techniques. The group should be homogeneous enough to permit the teacher virtually to "start over."

A fourth semester of typewriting instruction seems advisable since many research studies show that (with exceedingly rare exceptions) all office workers must be able to type and, hopefully, to type well. It appears that high levels of typing skill should be developed, often at the sacrifice of other kinds of skills.

Content

1. Review and refinement of machine operation, posture, and correct typewriting techniques.
2. Development of speed with accuracy on straight copy typing.
3. Review and skill development on centering, word division, error correction, correspondence, tabulation, manuscripts, and form typing.
4. Development of increased production ability when typing: busines letters with special features, tabulation with and without column headings, tabulation with and without rulings; on stationery of special sizes, interoffice memos, purchase orders, bills of lading, invoices, manuscripts with various types of bindings, business reports, cards, envelopes, news releases, and other business materials.
5. Development of skills and knowledge related to the use of duplicating equipment and materials.
6. Application of typing activities to office practice problems.

7. Application of typing activities to a simulated office experience.
8. Development of the knowledge of selection and purchase of office supplies: typewriter ribbons, stationery, carbon paper, erasing materials, typewriters, and other office supplies.
9. Performance on a simulated job application, job interview, and employment test.

Instructional Methods and Techniques. Many of the instructional methods and techniques discussed in first-year typewriting are applicable to the second-year course. In addition, the following suggestions refer directly to advanced classes.

1. Administer a performance pretest at the beginning of the course to determine present ability on production exercises.
2. Administer an information test at the beginning of the course to determine present knowledge of typewriting related information.
3. Use the performance and information tests as a basis for determining remedial exercises.
4. As a teacher, demonstrate good form, techniques, and efficient handling of machine and supplies.
5. Demonstrate frequently using the demonstration stand in order to improve stroking, refine manipulative skills, develop flow of work patterns, and refine production skills.
6. Set short-range goals that can be achieved; increase goals frequently as a means of motivating students to achieve new goals.
7. Accept only that work which is satisfactory as measured by office standards.
8. Use practice sets and workbooks of business forms.
9. Teach and drill on sample practice set problems to increase production ability before performing the final practice set task.
10. Collect business forms from the community to use as sample illustrations and practice forms.
11. Relate the tasks to be performed to the typing and stenographic duties performed in the community.

Instructional Aids. Most of the instructional aids listed in first-year typewriting will be applicable to instruction in the second year of typewriting.

Standards. Grading standards should be compatible with instructional objectives. Keeping in mind that the major purpose of the second year of typewriting is to develop a high degree of typewriting skill in office-type production work, the following grading standards may be appropriate.

First Semester of the Second Year

Scores on problem tests—One-half of this part would be words per minute on tests; the other half would be a mailability standard with work either being mailable or unmailable. In a 30-minute test, for example, the standard for letters might be:

	Percent of Grade
5 mailable — A	
4 mailable — B	
3 mailable — C	
2 mailable — D	70
Information tests	10
Work submitted	10
Care of Work Area	10

Second Semester of the Second Year. All grading should be on the "mailable" or "unmailable" standard. One-half of the grading might be based on problem tests; the other half on selected exercise assigned from the text or from a practice set.

Selected References. References which are listed for Typewriting First Year apply to instruction in Typewriting Second Year.

SHORTHAND FIRST YEAR

Description. The first year of shorthand is designed to help a student become competent in skills, knowledge, and attitudes which enable him to enter initial stenographic positions or to use these competencies as a basis for further instruction in a third and fourth semester. Obviously, then, shorthand is entirely vocational in nature. Unless the student has average-or-above-average abilities, it is likely that he will not be able to gain the skill needed to use shorthand as a vocational tool in the traditionally arranged time situation of the secondary school. For this reason, some type of selection process may be desirable, or some form of time arrangement may be employed to allow additional time for learning. A student may not require the total time allocated; therefore, a shorter period of total learning time may be arranged to enable him to develop the necessary competency.

If a selection process is desired, consideration should be given to employing a combination of a variety of measures: a prognostic test, academic achievement, academic ability, attendance record, English skills, and typewriting ability. A teacher or counselor probably would not use all of these factors in the selection process, but a combination of two or three would provide a better measure of ability in most cases than the use of one factor.

Objectives. Competencies necessary for entry into an initial stenographic position or to serve as a basis for additional shorthand instruction should be developed in an atmosphere calling for desirable character traits and applications of businesslike habits and attitudes. The first-year shorthand student should be able:

1. To read accurately and rapidly from plate material, from self-written homework notes, and from self-written dictated notes.
2. To use theory principles sufficiently well enough to enable him to form correctly written, well-proportioned outlines when taking dictation.
3. To transcribe on the typewriter rapidly and accurately his own notes taken from dictation.
4. To apply skills in proofreading, error correction, placement and execution of letter styles, spelling, word division, and punctuation.
5. To produce mailable letters at acceptable rates of production taken at rates of dictation similar to those employers would expect of beginning stenographic employees.
6. To perform shorthand activities with an attitude of appreciation for the importance of shorthand as a communciation tool in the busines office, and for the work performed by secretarial and stenographic employees.

The following techniques are suggested to help develop specific skills:

A. To develop automatization of brief forms, brief form derivatives, and common phrases.

   1. Pronouncing brief forms, brief form derivatives, and/or common phrases at the rate of 15 per minute, the student will write the outlines fluently, correctly, and with good proportion and with 100 per cent accuracy.
   2. Using a brief form chart, the student will drypen and pronounce the words rapidly and correctly.

B. To develop dictation writing ability.

   1. During the first eight weeks of the course and using the day's homework lesson, the student will write fluently and rapidly from dictation at repetitive rates of 80-90-words per minute and write something for every word.
   2. After the completion of theory, the student will take dictation of new material at repetitive rates of 80-90-100 words per minute and write something for every word.
   3. Unpreviewed, new material, three-minute dictation tests given at the rates of 60, 70, or 80 words per minute will be passed with 95 per cent accuracy by most students in the class.

C. To develop theory knowledge.

   1. A sampling of words from the current lesson and the new lesson written on the chalkboard by the teacher will be spelled and pronounced rapidly, repetitively, and accurately.
   2. Pronouncing selected theory words from the chapter at the rate of 10 words per minute, the student will fluently, correctly, and with good proportion write the outlines with a minimum of 75 per cent accuracy.

D. To develop typewritten transcription ability.

   1. Using homework notes and repetitive goal-setting drills, the student will transcribe for speed of transcription at the rate of 50 words per minute and for controlled transcription at the rate of 40 words per minute.
   2. Taking from dictation three 100-125-word letters dictated at the rate of 60 words per minute, the student will write accurately and with good proportion and

transcribe the three letters into mailable form in thirty minutes.

E. To develop punctuation, spelling, grammer, and other related transcription skills.

   1. Using the homework notes for the day's lesson, the student will drypen and read from the notes fluently, inserting punctuation and giving reasons for such insertions with 100 per cent accuracy.

   2. Using the homework notes for the day's lesson, the student will transcribe at the typewriter for three minutes, correcting all errors, spelling correctly, and applying all transcription skills at a minimum rate of 25 words per minute.

Grade Placement and Prerequisites. Experience has shown that most secondary school students require three or four semesters of shorthand instruction to become proficient in the competencies required of beginning stenographers. With the best teaching and learning conditions present, several students will have acquired competencies to enable them to fill beginning stenographic positions at the end of the first year; however, most research studies indicate that typical students require three or four semesters of study. Therefore, students of average or above-average academic ability should enroll in beginning shorthand in the 11th grade and advanced shorthand in the 12th grade.

Because typewritten transcription during the first semester of beginning shorthand is strongly recommended, the student should have had typewriting instruction prior to enrolling in beginning shorthand.

Content

1. Development of theory knowledge.
2. Review and continuous refinement of theory during the remainder of the first semester and throughout the second semester.
3. Development of reading skill, primarily in the first six weeks of the first semester.
4. Development of dictation ability starting with the beginning of writing on the sixth or seventh class day and with continued emphasis throughout the two semesters.
5. Development of typewritten transcription ability starting with the first semester and continuing throughout the second, culminating in application to mailable letter pro-

duction during the last six or seven weeks of the second semester.

6. Review and continued refinement of proofreading skills, spelling, word division, grammar, and punctuation.

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The teacher's handbooks which accompany the textbooks will be helpful in the organization of learning activities. Following are some suggestions grouped into two major skill development areas in the beginning shorthand class:

A. Developing Writing Skill

1. Automatization of the shorthand alphabet, brief forms, brief form derivatives, and phrases can be achieved by drills utilizing these teaching aids: chalkboard, overhead projector, programmed instruction material, flash cards, and charts.

2. Through repetitive spelling of words from the chalkboard or from the overhead projector image, the student will develop the correct sounds associated with symbols to further develop a quick reading and writing response.

3. Emphasis should be given to correct position of writing—both arms supported on the desk, body leaning forward at the desk, non-writing arm holding down the book and turning pages, and the writing elbow supported on the desk at all times.

4. By introducing dictation when writing begins on the sixth or seventh class day and working with a repetitive dictation plan employing the twenty-word interval (or the ½-minute speed forcing or ½-minute speed builder) for a period of fifteen minutes a day during the first two or three weeks, a student will learn fluency of writing and will develop a sustained writing ability. During these first weeks, the teacher may require the student to write from the homework lesson with the textbook open for immediate reference. Rates of dictation during these first five weeks should be at a minimum of 60 words per minute and reach 120-140 words per minute at times on short spurts. In the early stages, the block of time devoted to this repetitive dictation is fifteen minutes but would be extended to twenty minutes by the end of the fifth week. As early as possible, the student should be weaned from the open book.

5. By the sixth or seventh week, the 25-minute block of dictation time can be broken profitably into fifteen minutes of practice dictation on the homework lesson and ten minutes of dictation on new material. This technique can be used until theory has been completed. New material could be taken from the next homework lesson, the theory of which would have been previewed in teaching the new lesson. All dictation material should be previewed extensively prior to a dictation segment and reviewed between each dictation segment.

6. By the end of the fifth week, three-minute dictation tests to measure writing ability can be administered at speeds of 60 and 70 words per minute with evaluation based upon an error limit of 5 per cent of the total words. For Example: 60 wpm × 3 minutes = 180 words; 180 × 5% = 9 error limit.

7. After the completion of theory only, new material dictation would be used for class practice except for brief form and phrase letters. After theory has been presented, only new material would be used for dictation testing at a rate of not less than 60 words per minute.

8. Throughout the first and second semesters, it is recommended that dictation rates during dictation practice periods should exceed the testing rates for the week by approximately 20-40 words per minute. For example, if students are attempting to pass dictation test rates at 60 and 70 words per minute by the end of the week, dictation practice during the week should be at the rates of 80-90-100 words per minute. Speed spurts should be followed immediately by dropping back to a slower rate to regain controlled writing.

9. After the fourth or fifth week, suggested repetitive dictation practice procedures are primarily the one-minute speed builder, one-minute speed forcing, and the stair-step plans, with approximately 20 to 30 minutes per day for three or four days per week spent on dictation. Every class period should include some dictation at rates attainable by the slower student and some at rates high enough to challenge the faster student.

10. Homework practice should be extensive, varied, and well defined to the student. Variations such as the

whole sentence copy method, timed copy method, sentence repetitive method, tracing method, scribble writing, and self-dictation are recommended.

11. Student desks should be large enough to accommodate a typewriter and provide space for the student to place both arms on the desk during dictation practice, dictation testing, and mailable letter dictation.

12. All desks should be so arranged that the student can face the chalkboard and assume correct writing position.

13. Dictation testing should be administered when growth in writing has been accomplished. Testing may be performed once a week or once every two weeks.

14. During the second semester, subject matter of dictation practice, dictation testing, and homework should be correlated. This procedure reinforces learning, makes progress easier, and simulates business practice.

B. Developing Reading Skill

1. Competency in reading from plate material should be developed during the first five or six weeks of the first semester, by unison previewing of part of the plate of the new lesson, one-minute timing of individual reading efforts for six to eight minutes of a class period, spot checking of paragraphs studied for the day, and drypenning (lightly and quickly writing over the outlines in the plate) as plate reading is done in and out of class. Records of individual reading rates will add to diligent daily homework preparation.

2. A timed typewritten transcription effort can get response from all students in class simultaneously and is considered a wiser use of time than the individual reading process. Because of the multiplicity of activities in beginning shorthand class, no more than six to eight minutes should be devoted to the individual reading activity.

3. It is not necessary to read back dictated notes very frequently. If any reading is done, it is recommended that it be from controlled writing at the end of a repetitive dictation segment.

4. Whenever a student reads from dictation or from

homework plates or notes, required punctuation should be indicated and reasons given for such insertions.

Developing Transcription Skills. The importance of teaching the skill of typewritten transcription cannot be overemphasized. Statistics show that students do not enroll in second-year shorthand because they felt unsuccessful during the first year of instruction. A student cannot use shorthand skill without knowing how to transcribe at the typewriter; therefore, typewritten transcription skill needs to be taught during the first year of shorthand. The following suggestions are given for developing transcription skill:

1. If all beginning shorthand students have had typewriting instruction prior to enrollment in the beginning shorthand course, typewritten transcription should be begun on approximately the tenth day of class.

2. If some students are enrolled in beginning typewriting concurrently with beginning shorthand, the teacher may wish to begin typewritten transcription about the fifth or sixth week. By this time, beginning typewriting students will have achieved a stroking rate which will enable them to perform simple typewritten transcription activities.

3. Elements of typewritten transcription skill should proceed from the simple to the complex.

4. From the beginning of typewritten transcription and throughout all drill work, emphasis is placed on application of correct use of the typewriter, correct typewriting techniques, and correct typewriting posture.

5. Typewritten transcription skill should be developed by first transcribing repetitively individual sentences from homework plates. Within a few periods, repetitive one-minute timings and three-minute transcription rates on homework notes may be presented.

6. Repetitive drills to develop typewriting speed and accuracy can also be used effectively to develop typewritten transcription skill. Such drills can be accomplished in 10-12 minutes of class time for each day approximately three days a week.

7. Students should be directed:

   Step 1 — To use a five-inch line, double spacing, and no paragraph indentions.

Step 2 — To transcribe for three minutes from a section of homework notes, correcting errors as they occur.

Step 3 — To spend the next minute proofreading and correcting additional errors.

Step 4 — To score their work as the teacher reads the material including the spelling of problem words, explaining punctuation, and other correction pointers.

Scoring — Deduct "1" for transcription errors and "10" for typewriting errors. Determine total words transcribed from the student transcript, deduct the penalty, and divide the remaining words by three minutes to obtain the rate

8. During the last 6-7 weeks of the first year, mailable letter production should be introduced. A letter style and a letter placement scale are reviewed and practiced. Many opportunities should be given for production of three average length letters in approximately 30-35 minutes. Evaluation is on mailability. Correlate subject matter of the letters with the subject matter of the homework assignment when possible. Dictation rate for mailable letters should be about ten words below the lowest dictation test rate of the class, preferably no lower than 60 words per minute.

9. During all transcription practice, emphasis is given to drilling and having knowledge of transcription points of capitalization, number expression, hyphenated words, possessives, and punctuation usage.

10. Frequent transcription from homework notes without prior announcement helps to insure diligent completion of the day's assignment. Completion of homework includes knowing items of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, hyphenation, and number expression which appear in the student transcript.

11. All transcription up to the time of mailable letters can be done using a five-inch line, double spacing and manuscript style.

Individualizing Instruction in Shorthand. In addition to the shorthand teaching methods included in this material, consideration in the future will be given to individualizing shorthand instruction. The multiple-channel equipment, programmed instruction, videotaped instruction, instruction via television, sound-slide and film loop presentations, simulation, and learning packets all aid in arranging the learning situation to best meet the needs of the students.

Instructional aids

1. Printed materials—textbooks, teacher's handbooks, transcription workbooks, and student transcripts are major materials to be used. In addition, such books as *Previewed Dictation, Progressive Dictation, Dictation for Mailable Transcripts, Transcription Dictation, Dictation for Transcription, Speed Dictation with Previews, Short Business Letters for Dictation and Transcription, Shorthand Dictation ABC's,* and others provide pertinent material.
2. The student transcript—values derived from requiring the student to purchase a student transcript are numerous. It serves as help during the beginning stages of reading development a source for learning the transcription elements of the lesson (spelling, hyphenation, possessives, number expression, capitalization, et cetera), a dictation source for additional dictation either given by someone or placed on tape, a homework source for writing from the transcript, and a source to determine the number of words transcribed during three-minute transcription rate exercises.
3. Other equipment and materials—additional instructional aids include a shorthand dictionary, regular dictionary, word syllabication manual, overhead projector and transparencies, skill builder and shorthand filmstrips, reference manual, and pacers. Some schools provide record players, audiotape recorders, and cassettes which students may take home to provide additional practice.

Equipment for teaching shorthand. Equipment necessary for optimum instruction in beginning shorthand would consist of:

a. Electric typewriters in the beginning shorthand classrooms,

b. Posture chairs and adjustable typewriting tables or desks with an adjustable section. Desk tops of adequate size to permit the shorthand writer to have at least 24 inches to the side of the typewriter in order that arms can be supported on the desk while taking dictation.

Because most beginning shorthand classes divide themselves into about three levels of dictation writing ability, it is recommended that multiple-channel equipment be provided to give practice at rates most suitable for each student to progress to the best of his ability. Such multiple-channel equipment can be used effectively for remedial practice in spelling, punctuation, theory review, brief form drill, homework practice, and transcription drills. A complete treatment of the use of multiple-channel equipment can be found in Monograph 121 (see selected references).

Standards. Any standards indicated for shorthand instruction should be flexible and should be reconsidered each year. Abilities of students, length of class periods, and equipment should all be considered in determining standards. The following are presented only as guidelines.

End of First Semester			*Per cent of Grade*
READING:	Students read a short selection from homework notes.		10
	120 wpm	A	
	100 wpm	B	
	80 wpm	C	
	60 wpm	D	
THEORY QUIZZES:	Ten-word quizzes, taken from daily assignments.		10
DICTATION SPEED:	New material, dictated for three minutes, to be transcribed on the typewriter with a minimum of 95% accuracy.		30
	Rate		
	70	A	
	60	B	
	60 for 2 minutes	C	
TRANSCRIPTION RATE:	Transcription from homework notes		20
	28 wpm	A	
	24 - 27 wpm	B	
	19 - 23 wpm	C	
	14 - 18 wpm	D	
CHAPTER TESTS AND QUIZZES:	Average of tests and quizzes in spelling, vocabulary, proofreading, punctuation, and grammar		20

HOMEWORK AND LAB PRACTICE:			10
End of Second Semester			
DICTATION SPEED:	New material, dictated for three minutes, to be transcribed on the typewriter with a minimum of 95% accuracy		50
	Rate		
	100	A	
	90	B	
	80	C	
	70	D	
TRANSCRIPTION RATE:	Transcription from homework notes		10
	Rate		
	35	A	
	31 - 34	B	
	26 - 30	C	
	21 - 25	D	
COMPLETE THEORY:			10
MAILABLE LETTERS:	Three letters, dictated at 60 wpm, each letter containing approximately 125 words, to be transcribed with complete mailability in 30 minutes		10
	3 letters mailable	A	
	2 letters mailable	B	
	1 letter mailable	C	
	1 letter correctible	D	
CHAPTER TESTS AND QUIZZES:	Average of test and quizzes in spelling, vocabulary, proofreading, punctuation, and grammar		10
HOMEWORK AND LAB PRACTICE			10

SELECTED REFERENCES

Condon, Crank, Graves, Harken, Jester. *The Selection and Use of Multiple-Channel Equipment in the Teaching of Shorthand,* Monograph 121, South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1969.

Crank, Doris H. and Ron C. DeYoung. "Proper Emphasis in the Shorthand Classroom," *Business Education Forum,* December, 1970. pp. 51-52.

Douglas, Blanford, Anderson. *Teaching Business Subjects*, Second Edition. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1965.

Grever, Jean M. "Can Shorthand Instruction Be Improved Through Better Selection and Use of Teaching Materials?" *Business Education Forum*, October, 1967. pp. 5-9.

Grubbs, Robert L. "Rx for Effective Shorthand Teaching," *Business Education World*, October, 1959, through June, 1960.

Russon, Allien R. *Methods of Teaching Shorthand*, Monograph 119. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1968.

SHORTHAND SECOND YEAR

Description. The second year of shorthand study is designed to refine those skills, knowledge, and attitudes which were developed throughout the first year of shorthand instruction. A student should have reached at least an average achievement level in beginning shorthand to continue the study of second-year shorthand. Only in unusual circumstances should a student who has less than a C grade in beginning shorthand be permitted to study second-year shorthand.

If a school offers only the third semester of shorthand instruction, the major emphasis of this semester should be the refinement of transcription skills. If a school offers the third and fourth semesters of shorthand instruction, it is recommended that the third semester give major emphasis to dictation speed development and the fourth semester to the refinement of transcription skills.

Objectives. Skills, knowledge, and attitudes refined and developed during the second year of shorthand study should enable a student to acquire the degree of vocational skill which will prepare him to enter a stenographic position upon graduation from high school; prepare him with the necessary abilities to hold a part-time stenographic position while attending college; or serve as a basis for further study in a post-secondary institution.

The second-year shorthand student, after completing semesters three and four, should be able:

1. To read fluently and accurately from shorthand plates, from self-written homework notes, and from self-written dictated notes written at rates applicable to advanced shorthand.
2. To apply theory principles sufficiently well to be able to write accurately, in correct proportion and without hesitation any new word as well as words of average and above-average difficulty.
3. To transcribe on the typewriter rapidly and accurately and apply this skill to various types of transcription prob-

lems involving letter styles, varying lengths of letters, memos, statistical arrangements, minutes, manuscripts, and envelopes.

4. To apply skills in proofreading, placement, spelling, word division, punctuation, and use of reference manuals with efficiency and employable accuracy.
5. To produce mailable letters at acceptable rates of production taken at rates of dictation similar to those employers would expect of stenographers.
6. To solve problems of transcription, substitute meaningful words for indistinct outlines, make corrections in the dictation if necessary, and apply decision-making procedures to office tasks.
7. To use, in business dictation and in oral communication, the business terminology applicable to an office situation and understand and practice the desirable character traits required of a successful stenographer.
8. To take dictation at varying rates (with interruption, changes, and/or unusual directions), for a sustained length of time and maintain the interest, consciousness of good writing technique, and alertness to be able to read back to the dictator at any moment and answer questions about the correspondence if required.
9. To understand and appreciate the duties performed and the responsibilties of the stenographic position and the relationship which exists between the application of stenographic skills and the fulfillment of the complete job as stenographer.
10. To make wise decisions about stenographic career opportunities as the result of classroom speakers, class discussions, office visitations, and readings.

The following techniques are suggested to help develop specific areas of learning:

A. To refine theory, brief forms, brief form derivatives, and phrasing abilities.

   1. As the teacher pronounces brief forms, brief form derivatives, sample theory words, and common phrases at rates of 12-15 words per minute, the student will write fluently, correctly, and with good proportion all outlines with at least 95% accuracy.

2. Preview and review words related to the dictation speed building material that will be read and written repeatedly from the board during the dictation speed building procedure to develop automatization and correct response to a large vocabulary of words.

B. To refine dictation writing ability.

1. As the teacher dictates at 20-40 words above the dictation test speed being attempted for the week, the student will write rapidly something for every word as dictation is given according to a speed building repetitive plan.

2. Following speed drives used in a repetive speed building plan, the student will write well-proportioned, correctly written outlines at the middle rate of the speed building plan.

C. To refine typewritten transcription ability.

1. Using homework notes and repetive bell-ringing drills, the student will transcribe for speed of transcription at the rates of 60-80 words per minute, and for controlled transcription at the rates of 50-70 words per minute.

2. Taking from dictation four 150-175 word letters given at the rate of 90 words per minute, the student will write accurately and with good proportion and transcribe, including carbons and envelopes, into mailable form as many as possible of the four letters in 30-35 minutes.

D. To refine skills in proofreading, spelling, punctuation, and other areas related to transcription.

1. Using homework notes from the day's lesson, the student will transcribe on the typewriter, correcting all errors, spelling and punctuating correctly, and using correct transcription techniques for three minutes at the minimum rate of 40 words per minute.

2. Given a proofreading exercise, the student will correct the copy with proofreaders' marks and retype correctly into mailable form at a rate equal to the current transcription rate required for the grading period.

E. To develop an understanding of the stenographer's day in a business office.

1. Observing a stenographer on the job, the student will list and clock the tasks performed by her.
2. Observing a stenographer on the job, the student will list the materials and equipment used and note the application of human relationships as well.

Grade Placement and Prerequisites. Research studies and practical experience in the teaching of shorthand show that the average student requires three to four semesters of shorthand study in order to develop adequate vocational competency to be employable in most initial stenographic positions. Therefore, time should be reserved during the 12th grade for a minimum of one semester of advanced shorthand study, but preferably two semesters. In schools where only three semesters of shorthand are offered, the fourth semester should be devoted to a stenographic office practice course which would include further shorthand study and units of instruction on office practices and procedures.

If students have followed the recommendation made for the first year of shorthand, beginning typewriting would have been taken in the 10th grade and beginning shorthand and advanced typewriting in the 11th grade. However, if this pattern has not been followed, it is recommended that the student take advanced typewriting concurrently with second-year shorthand.

If the shorthand student can take Business Communications while taking advanced shorthand, the English skills of use of reference manuals, punctuation, grammar, spelling, vocabulary, letter writing, and report writing will be improved.

Content

1. Refinement of theory knowledge with emphasis on advanced business terms, technical terms, and advanced phrasing principles.
2. Refinement of proofreading skills, punctuation, grammar, business vocabulary, similar words, expression of numbers, hyphenated words, and possessives.
3. Continuous skill development on rate of typewritten transcription, accuracy of typewritten transcription, application of transcribing from shorthand notes into various forms used in business, and application of variations in style used in offices.
4. Continuous skill development in the production of mailable letters and mailable materials with emphasis on

varying lengths of letters, various forms, multiple copies, and varying lengths of time for production.

5. Continuous skill development in taking dictation.
6. Major emphasis on ability to take office style dictation.
7. Emphasis on need to write outlines correctly and with good proportion when taking dictation in order that transcription can be performed accurately and rapidly.
8. Study of secretarial career opportunities and skills of job seeking and job application.
9. Problem solving experiences which involve the attitudes, personal characteristics, human relationships, and decision-making aspects of office employment.

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The teacher's handbooks which accompany the textbooks and the supplementary selected references will be helpful in the organization of learning activities.

Suggestions for refining writing skill

1. A repetitive skill building plan such as the stair step, one-minute speed forcing, or one-minute speed builder should be used and rates of dictation should be 20-40 words above the rates being attempted on dictation tests for the week. Approximately a 20- to 30-minute block of time should be devoted to dictation development approximately three times per week.
2. In the early stages of the third semester, it is recommended that previews be placed on the board; however, as the students progress, the use of reviews may be more beneficial. To encourage a respect for accurately written forms, it is recommended that the preview or review, using chalkboard or overhead, always be used in dictation speed building practice.
3. Gains at higher speeds are more difficult to achieve; therefore, dictation testing may be done every two weeks rather than every week to give students' an opportunity to experience growth.
4. An accuracy level of 95 per cent on a three-minute, new matter dictation test is recommended for the third semester and 97 or 98 per cent on a three-minute dictation test for the fourth semester.

5. The best use of multiple-channel equipment is described in Monograph 121 and the Business Education Association publication, *Using Multiple Channel Equipment to Develop Stenographic Competency.*

6. Students should be taught how to dictate and be encouraged to use the Student Transcript as their source of live dictation to one another, or as material to be placed on a tape for practice.

7. Correlating dictation practice and dictation testing with the subject matter being studied in the textbook will facilitate progress and simulate business conditions.

8. The concept of "writing something for every word" is still important. This will eliminate omissions in the notes and will help the student achieve higher rates more rapidly.

9. Correct writing position should be emphasized: both arms supported on the desk, body leaning forward, and the writing elbow supported by the desk.

Suggestions for refining transcribing skill

1. Transcription skill is best developed through short, repetitive drills. Sentences including punctuation, hyphenated words, possessives, number expressions, et cetera, can be duplicated for repetitive speed and controlled transcription practice.

2. Approximately 10-15 minutes a day, two or three times a week, should be devoted to transcription drills throughout the third and fourth semesters to develop additional skill.

3. Emphasis should be placed on correct position at the typewriter and correct operational techniques.

4. Difficulties that might be encountered in transcription should be previewed in the beginning of the third semester. As the course progresses the student should be held increasingly responsible for anticipating such difficulties.

5. Production of mailable letters should proceed from the simple to the complex, i.e., one carbon and an envelope; additional carbons and envelopes; shorter letters to longer letters; letters of mixed lengths; and letters with special notations.

6. At times students should be required to transcribe from cold notes, notes containing errors in the dictation, and/or notes which contain directions for transcription.
7. Other teachers and area businessmen may be invited to assist in both dictation and job interviewing.
8. Dictation for mailable transcription should not exceed the speed at which everyone in the class is able to write good outlines.
9. Correlating mailable letter dictation with homework subject matter from the textbook reinforces learning and simulates a business situation, making successful achievement easier.
10. Evaluation of mailable letters may be based on the point system as recommended by Grubbs[1] or may be based on the number of mailable letters.

Miscellaneous suggestions

1. Theory development is important in the third and fourth semester. Attention should be given to theory by previewing the new lesson on the chalkboard, reviewing previous lesson on the chalkboard, and administering theory tests.
2. Transcription drills and three-minute transcription timings on homework notes help to emphasize writing notes correctly and with good proportion.
3. Students should own the Student Transcript to use as a study source to learn transcription items of punctuation, number expression, and capitalization. It can also be used as a dictation source as well as a source for obtaining total words when performing three-minute transcription rates.
4. Reading back from shorthand notes is rarely necessary; however, when such reading is done, required punctuation should be indicated, certain words should be spelled, and hyphenations and possessives should be reviewed.
5. As in first-year shorthand, using homework in class for three-minute transcription rates and drills will necessitate the student's having completed his assignment.

---

[1] Grubbs, Robert L. "Rx for Effective Shorthand Teaching," *Business Education World*, October, 1959, through June, 1960.

6. Starting each day with a transcription rate from homework notes should motivate the student to compete for higher rates and use his homework in a worthwhile manner.

7. Student desks should be large enough to accommodate a typewriter and to provide space for the student to have both arms on the desk during dictation practice, dictation testing, and mailable letter dictation. All desks should be so arranged that the student can face the board and assume correct writing position.

8. Accurate proofreading is essential in the teaching of stenographic skills. Some suggestions are given which may be employed in the teaching of typewriting and shorthand:

   a. The teacher reads material aloud, inserts punctuation and gives reasons for such insertions, spells problem words, and discusses hyphenated words, possessives, and number expressions.

   b. Students watch for errors especially in beginning and closing lines, double letter words, and similar words.

   c. Individual students read alcud word by word.

   d. Students proofread each other's papers and are given credit for perfect checking.

   e. Student exercises containing many different types of errors.

9. Comments relative to individualizing instruction in shorthand which appears in the outline for the first year of shorthand are just as appropriate for the second year.

Instructional aids. Same as first-year shorthand.

Standards — In determining the standards for Shorthand Second Year, the teacher should take into consideration the following factors: the ability level of the students, the length of time allotted for instruction, the previous achievement of the students, employment requirements of the community, and the goals of the students themselves.

The following standards are listed as recommendations and should be considered as guidelines which are subject to modification upwards for superior students and modification downwards for less able students.

End of First Semester of Shorthand — Second Year
(of a two-semester shorthand course)

			Percent of Grade
DICTATION SPEED:	New material, dictated for three minutes to be transcribed on the typewriter with a minimum of 95% accuracy		40
	Rate		
	120	A	
	110	B	
	100	C	
	90	D	
TRANSCRIPTION RATE:	Transcription from homework notes		10
	Rate		
	40	A	
	36 - 39	B	
	30 - 35	C	
	25 - 29	D	
COMPLETE THEORY:			10
MAILABLE LETTERS:	Three letters, dictated at 80 wpm, each letter containing approximately 150 words, to be transcribed with complete mailability in 30 minutes, envelopes, and carbons		20
	3 letters mailable	A	
	2 letters mailable	B	
	1 letter mailable	C	
	1 letter correctible	D	
CHAPTER TESTS AND QUIZZES:	Average of tests and quizzes in spelling, vocabulary, proofreading, punctuation, and grammar		10
HOMEWORK AND LAB PRACTICE:			10

End of Second Semester of Shorthand Second Year
(of a two-semester shorthand second year course)

			Percent of Grade
TRANSCRIPTION RATE FROM HOMEWORK NOTES:			30
	Rate		
	55	A	
	50 - 54	B	
	45 - 49	C	
	40 - 44	D	
MAILABLE LETTERS:	Dictated at 80 or 90 wpm or office-style dictation, address envelope, use carbons, 150-word letters		40
	4 mailable in 30 minutes	A	
	3 mailable in 30 minutes	B	
	2 mailable in 30 minutes	C	
	1 mailable in 30 minutes	D	
THEORY TESTS:			10
DICTATION SPEED:	New material, dictated for three minutes to be transcribed on the typewriter, with a minimum of 97 per cent accuracy		20
	Rate		
	120	A	
	110	B	
	100	C	
	90	D	

STENOGRAPHIC OFFICE PRACTICE

Description. Stenographic Office Practice is a course designed to integrate the knowledges and skills students have acquired in business courses as well as in other courses. Prerequisite for the course should include a mastery of typewriting skill and a year of shorthand instruction. It is desirable, too, that students be enrolled concurrently in the second year of shorthand.

The course is for the average or above-average student who has a stenographic career objective. In addition to typewriting and shorthand skills which a student has as prerequisites, new skills and knowledges will be acquired and integrated; however, emphasis will be placed on the development of traits, habits, and attitudes that are desirable in the business world as well as in everyday life.

Instruction must be designed to meet local needs and individual abilities. Availability of adding machines, calculators, transcribing machines, duplicating machines, miscellaneous office machines, and equipment, a variety of typewriters, and a keypunch is essential.

Stenographic Office Practice is a two-semester laboratory course designed for a minimum of 275 minutes per week.

Objectives. The student should be able:

1. To develop speed and accuracy in typing straight copy, forms, reports, documents, papers, stencils and masters;
2. To develop a working knowledge of the operation of the adding and calculating machines.
3. To develop basic skill in the operation of fluid and stencil duplicators.
4. To develop knowledge and skill in filing.
5. To develop skill and accuracy in transcribing letters from voice writing equipment.
6. To develop skill in placing and receiving telephone calls.
7. To work under pressure as evidenced by opportunities to experience timed production work.

Attitudes and Traits

1. To develop an understanding of desirable traits needed for a rewarding personal and business life — self-control, self-reliance, and an understanding of others.
2. To practice critical self-evaluation in class situations and to create a desire for constant improvement of knowledge and work performance.
3. To develop an attitude of flexibility in office situations.

Habits

1. To conserve time, supplies, and effort in performing office tasks.
2. To acquire information essential to the performance of various routines and procedures.
3. To develop the ability to listen to and carry out instructions.
4. To develop organizational ability.

Integration of Knowledge. The teacher will:

1. Engage in problem-solving situations in class so that students recognize the existence of a problem, develop possible solutions, and assess each solution in terms of the situation.
2. Provide opportunities for the improvement of the fundamentals of English, arithmetic, penmanship, and reading.
3. Provide a knowledge of reference materials and practice in using reference sources.
4. Provide an understanding of office organization and the relationship of various departments to the whole organization.

The student will:

1. Develop an understanding of the lines of authority in business organizations and the flow of work within the framework.
2. Participate in part-time work programs after school and on Saturday.
3. Apply for positions prior to graduation.
4. Complete secretarial work for different areas in the school.

Grade Placement and Prerequisites. Stenographic Office Practice is usually taught at the 12th grade level, the time nearest to employment, and when skills and knowledge are at a maximum level of performance. The course could serve as the related class for the cooperative office education program.

Content

1. General Responsibilities
   a. Receptionist
   b. Stenographic (dictation, transcription, dictating and transcribing machines)
2. Office Etiquette and personality development
3. Letter writing (typed letter; self-composed letter)
4. Communication responsibilities and systems (business speech and grammar, speaking voice, word choice, courtesy and sincerity, business reports and manuscripts, legal papers, telephone usage, internal systems, and telegraph usage.

5. Filing and records management
    a. The why and how of filing
    b. Filing procedures, equipment, and supplies
    c. Alphabetic filing rules and systems
    d. Other filing systems
    e. Records management
6. The mail (incoming and outgoing; bulk mailing methods; and equipment available)
7. Duplicating
    a. Uses and methods of duplication
    b. Advantages and disadvantages of different machines
    c. Carbon copies and carbon paper
    d. Fluid, stencil, offset, and photo duplicators
    e. Other duplicating equipment
    f. Care of duplicating equipment
8. Transportation
    a. Methods and types of transportation services
    b. Travel information, services, and arrangements
    c. Secretarial responsibilities
9. Information for processing
    a. Data processing (terminology, unit record equipment, and computer uses)
    b. Adding and calculating machines
10. Other responsibilities (financial records and office management)
11. Job seeking and job success
    a. Presenting yourself to the employer and choosing your first job
    b. Personal data sheet and application
    c. The interview
    d. Job success and advancement

Instructional Methods and Techniques. A variety of methods, techniques, and course organization may be used in teaching stenographic office practice.

1. The battery method could be used to teach certain machines when equipment (duplicating machines, keypunch, telephone) is shared by several students; or, in the case of typewriting units, when typewriters are not available for all students.
2. The case method of teaching encourages students to think independently, reach decisions, and defend decisions.

3. The contract method provides students with written descriptions of specified unit-related work to be completed in a certain time. Contracts vary in degree of difficulty and are adaptable to the varying abilities of students in class.

4. The demonstration method by a visitor, teacher, or student can be used very effectively to demonstrate new machines on the market or to demonstrate the operation of machines currently being used in the class.

5. The discussion method should be used with all other methods or as a single class activity.

6. The dramatization method emphasizes content and may be in the form of role playing or dramatization from previously prepared material. Dramatizing various office situations can provide an effective method of informing prospective students of course offerings, careers, and course content.

7. The field trip should be selected carefully, planned, and previewed with students, and then followed up in order to make this method of learning most effective.

8. Guest speakers should include prominent businessmen from the community as well as graduates of the stenographic programs.

9. The laboratory-work method is a means of integrating all secretarial skills and knowledges.

10. The learning systems method (multi-media presentation) organizes the material to promote optimum learning at the student's own level.

11. The lecture method will be used to a limited degree because most classroom activities should be student centered and student involved.

12. Library units will help acquaint students with the reference books used in office work. Students will learn where and how to look for accurate and dependable data. In addition to knowing sources, they will learn how to record the data.

13. The model office method (simulation) requires space and equipment similar to a "model office." Learning activities will revolve around this office.

14. The observation and survey methods can be used either in school offices or on field trips. Surveys can be con-

ducted by means of questionnaires in conjunction with a unit of learning. Assigned observations of office workers on the job can provide an analysis of the tasks performed and used.

15. The production practice method provides experience in helping students to learn to meet office deadlines.
16. The role-playing method is especially effective when used in situations involving job applications and office case problems.

Instructional Aids. Instructional materials appropriate to use in teaching stenographic office practice are many and varied. Some frequently used materials are:

1. Audio tapes — self-made or commercial products.
2. Displays, bulletin boards, charts, and posters to launch a learning activity, to motivate, to teach content, and to reinforce a unit of instruction.
3. Job instruction sheets to teach machine units.
4. Practice sets to provide a realistic approach to office problems which require decision making and judgments.
5. Programmed material for instruction in spelling, business arithmetic, punctuation drills, et cetera.
6. Projectors — overhead and opaque.
7. Videotapes, films, filmstrips, slides, and film loops for office practice units and office machines instruction.
8. Computer assisted instruction — a computer which classifies, stores, retrieves, and disseminates. This mode of instruction permits a student to work at his own rate and within the limits of his capabilities, depending upon his individual progress. The method is especially adaptable to machines training.
9. The controlled reading device can be used for 10-key, typewriting, transcription, and key-punch instruction.
10. Multi-media systems combining filmstrips, video-tape, and audio-tape are especially suitable for individualizing instruction in office machines.

Standards. Standards for the course must be based upon the specific needs of the business community, prior training of students enrolled in the class, amount of time spent in the classroom on specific units, types and condition of equipment being used, abilities of students in the course, and the many other variables involved. These factors must all be weighed carefully with the awareness of the contribution the course makes toward each individual's employability.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Berry, Doris A. "The Role of Office Practice Instruction in the Training for General Office Assignments," *Delta Pi Epsilon Journal*, 7:33-52 F.

Berry, Doris A. "Typewriting — Office Assignment Number One," *National Business Education Association Yearbook, No. 5*, 1967, National Business Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1967. pp. 34-38.

Eastern Business Teachers Association Yearbook, "The Office Practice Program in Business Education," 1969.

National Business Education Association Yearbook, No. 6, 1968. Business Education an Evaluative Inventory." National Business Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1968.

Business Education Association Yearbook, Volume 19, 1962. National Business Teachers Association and Eastern Business Teachers Association, 1962.

MACHINE SHORTHAND

Description. Machines shorthand may be offered as a part of the shorthand curriculum, as an option to those students who may wish to learn a shorthand system but who are more highly motivated when operating equipment. Machine shorthand requires approximately the same number of class hours for learning basic theory and machine operation as a manual system requires. However, less homework time may be required for machine shorthand than for manual shorthand.

Machine shorthand necessitates the automatization of keyboard locations for letters and combinations of letters. Once this automatization has been accomplished, student progress is likely to be very rapid.

The development and use of machine shorthand skill demands the same level of ability as any other shorthand system. The values of providing options for students and the increased motivation of learning through machine operation, however, make machine shorthand a desirable business education offering in the high school curriculum.

Objectives for machine shorthand are the same as for other shorthand systems. (See Shorthand First Year.)

Standards of achievement in machine shorthand will vary from standards used for manual systems only during the first semester of instruction. Student progress during the first semester should be checked by means of the evaluations contained in the *Teacher's Manual, Keyboard and Theory, Book 1*, and all grading should conform to the suggestions in the *Teacher's Manual*. For semesters two, three, and four, the same standards and grading plans that are used for manual shorthand can be used for machine shorthand.

Methods and Techniques of Teaching

1. Dictation begins with the first lesson and continues throughout the course.
2. Practically every minute of every class period is spent writing from dictation.
3. No more than five minutes of a class period should be consumed in checking homework which is done principally through individual reading.
4. Students write from new-matter dictation as soon as possible, but dictated material should contain only elements of theory that have been mastered. Material should be dictated well within the range of the entire class.
5. Dictation practice should permit students to write at increasingly higher rates of speed but only for short intervals. Before leaving a dictation practice selection, the material should be dictated at a rate that most students can write with control.
6. Whenever possible, three-channel instruction tapes should be used to permit students to select their appropriate practice speed.
7. Students should automatize the locations of the letters and letter combination by thinking the location. Reference to keyboard charts should not be permitted.
8. The best out-of-class practice procedure seems to be the writing of each sentence separately until every word can be written accurately and the sentence can be written without hesitation.
9. Students must keep up with the reading and they should be timed in their efforts to read from notes.
10. Fairly frequent readback of notes written from dictation aids in determining the accuracy with which outlines are written and also aids in building reading skills.
11. Homework practice should consist of completion of the individual study sessions in the textbook.
12. Students should be encouraged to write scripthand for notetaking purposes whenever possible.

13. Grading scales recommended by the authors of the textbooks appear to be usable and valid.

14. Much practice must be provided in writing abbreviations.

Instruction Materials (1) Basic text for first year: *Touch Shorthand, Keyboard and Theory, Book 1*, Nixdorf, Dungan, and Ruegg. Stenographic Machines, Inc., Skokie, Illinois, 1967.

Teacher's Manual to accompany *Touch Shorthand, Keyboard and Theory, Book 1*, 1967.

Instruction/Dictation Tape Set to accompany *Touch Shorthand, Keyboard and Theory, Book 1*, 1967.

Individual Study Session Forms to accompany *Touch Shorthand, Keyboard and Theory, Book 1*, 1967.

(2) Basic text for second year: *Touch Shorthand, Beginning Skill Development and Transcription, Book* 2, Nixdorf, Dungan, and Ruegg. Stenographic Machines, Inc., 1967.

Teacher's Manual to accompany *Touch Shorthand, Beginning Skill Development and Transcription, Book* 2, 1967.

Shorthand Dictation Tape Set for *Touch Shorthand, Beginning Skill Development and Transcription, Book 2*, 1967.

Individual Study Session Forms correlated with *Touch Shorthand, Beginning Skill Development and Transcription, Book 2*, 1967.

ACCOUNTING AND DATA PROCESSING CAREER OBJECTIVE

Writers

Dr. Gene Houser, Chairman Southern Illinois University Edwardsville	Mr. John Majernik Belvidere High School Belvidere
Mr. Dale E. Best Tuscola High School Tuscola	Dr. Lewis E. Wall Western Illinois University Macomb

ACCOUNTING CAREER OBJECTIVE

Writers

Mr. Dale E. Best Tuscola High School Tuscola	Mr. John Majernik Belvidere High School Belvidere

Dr. John H. Rich
Illinois State University
Normal

ACCOUNTING CAREER OBJECTIVE

Introductory Statement. Accounting offers greater career opportunities than ever before. The increase in demand for accountants has been caused in part by the increased number, size, and complexity of business firms and by greater governmental requirements, especially in the area of taxes. The United States Department of Labor has estimated that each year during the 1970's at least 24,000 more accountants will be needed.

Accountants may be employed in public accounting, in private accounting, or in government. Public accountants work for a fee and often employ staff accountants to assist them, therefore, they are known as public accountants. Accountants who are employed by a firm and work only on the accounting records of that firm are called private accountants.

The scope of responsibilities and activities of accountants varies greatly. Accounting jobs range from simple routine positions requiring limited knowledge of the accounting process to positions requiring a thorough knowledge of highly specialized accounting information. Because of the scope of responsibilities and activities related to accounting, several specialized areas have developed. Some of these areas of specialization are: (1) *cost accounting;* emphasis on the determination and control of costs, (2) *tax accounting;* preparation of tax returns and advisement relating to business transactions, (3) *auditing;* review of accounting records, and (4) *management accounting;* assist management in planning operations.

Philosophy. Accounting embraces a wide range of business activity. Accounting is generally considered to be concerned with the processes involved in recording, classifying, summarizing, and interpreting financial data. In general, accounting data are stated in monetary terms and are of a financial nature. For many students Business Mathematics serves as a desirable basis for the study of accounting.

Accounting records are a very important means of providing financial information. Accounting contributes to an individual's ability (1) to earn a living, (2) to manage personal and family affairs, (3) to understand the economic activities of business, and (4) to provide a basis for advanced study.

Automated data processing has forced a change in the accounting procedures used by business. Because accounting and data processing are so closely tied together in the business world, it is essential that these two areas be integrated in the classroom as well. The degree to which this is attempted depends upon the student's purposes, job opportunities, and separate courses offered in data processing in the school.

The findings of recent research suggest that one year of high school accounting is not adequate for employment as a bookkeeper or accountant. Although some one-year students do start as clerical workers, at least two years of accounting or additional training in a collegiate institution is needed, unless on-the-job training is obtained through a cooperative education program. This is not to say, however, that only one year of accounting would not be desirable for many students if the course includes general education elements as well as a related managerial emphasis.

Economics is the basis for accounting and accounting data are the bases for managerial decisions. Students are able to gain a broad view of the function of business through this course if an effort is made by the teacher to de-emphasize the "how" of routine recording operations and stress the "why" of the principles and economic implications. Of equal importance is the level of understanding expected of the students. Some accounting processes require mastery; other procedures may require only an acquaintance at this level. The teacher must always be sufficiently aware of variations in current business practice so that memorization of detail from the textbook does not obliterate the real purpose of the course. The concept that "form" follows "function" is paramount. Accounting practice is not rigid and inflexible but is based on changing business conditions and requirements.

BUSINESS MATHEMATICS

Description. Business mathematics is a one- or two-semester course emphasizing both business and personal use. Selected topics in financial mathematics are chosen to provide students with an insight into understanding business transactions. The development of arithmetic skills and knowledge related to buying and selling merchandise, payroll preparation, investments, and banking are emphasized. Although this course is useful for students who expect to take accounting, it need not be an absolute requirement. If the accounting student has not had the course, it is advisable to administer a diagnostic competency examination in business mathematics at the beginning of the accounting course.

Objectives: The student who completes business mathematics should be able:

1. To appreciate the value of arithmetic and do simple computations effectively.

2. To read and understand business problems and to identify the arithmetical process needed for the solutions.
3. To usa the more practical shortcuts that are of value in calculation.
4. To relate business arithmetic terminology and problems to concrete business applications.
5. To acquire good work habits, including accuracy, care of detail and judgment in estimating answers, working neatly and rapidly, checking his own computations, and comparing his answers with estimated common-sense answers when practicable.
6. To write formulas for doing certain typical problems, and comprehend the process of solution.
7. To know about numeration systems, such as the binary number system, and their applications to computers and business.

Grand Placement. Business mathematics should be offered in either the ninth or tenth grade.

I. IMPROVING BASIC ARITHMETIC FUNDAMENTALS

A. Improving Skills in Basic Arithmetic
   1. Skills in addition and subtraction
   2. Skills in multiplication and division

B. Improving Skills in Using Fractions and Aliquot Parts
   1. Addition and subtraction of common fractions and mixed numbers
   2. Multiplication and division of common fractions and mixed numbers
   3. Addition and subtraction of decimals
   4. Multiplication and division of decimals

C. Improving Skills in Using Percentage
   1. Finding the per cent of a number
   2. Finding what per cent one number is of another

II. PERSONAL APPLICATIONS OF BUSINESS ARITHMETIC

A. Personal Records
   1. Personal cash records
   2. Personal bank records
   3. Reconciling the bank balance
   4. Budgeting problems
   5. Borrowing money, computing interest
   6. Installment buying

B. Problems of Property Ownership
   1. Automobile ownership and operation
   2. Home expenditures
   3. Depreciation
   4. Insurance
   5. Investments in stocks, bonds, and real estate

C. Taxes
   1. Property tax rates
   2. Sales and excise taxes
   3. Figuring wage income
   4. Social security taxes and benefits
   5. Income tax
   6. Other taxes

III. BUSINESS APPLICATIONS OF BUSINESS ARITHMETIC

A. Problems of a Small Business
   1. The balance sheet
   2. The income statement
   3. Figuring payrolls
   4. Interpreting graphs illustrating business records
   5. Understanding prepared tables

B. Buying Problems
   1. Purchasing merchandise
   2. Trade and cash discounts
   3. Computing invoices
   4. Buying expenses

C. Selling Problems
   1. Sales record
   2. Figuring retail discounts
   3. Figuring profits on sales
   4. Pricing goods, mark-ups
   5. Selling expenses

IV NUMERATION SYSTEMS

A. Roman System of Numeration
B. Decimal System of Numeration
C. Basic Concepts Involved in Linear Programming and Binary Numbers

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The teacher of business mathematics must ascertain the computational skills of each student before beginning the course. Scores from standarized tests can be checked for mathematical aptitude and a pre-test given on basic skills.

Any teacher presentation of what is considered new subject content should include careful attention to organizing the form and manner of introduction so that the student is *able* and *will* relate what is unfamiliar to what he already knows. Following the introduction of that which is relatively new to students, a teacher will tackle the job of devising a variety of learning experiences that show whether the student can demonstrate that he understands what he is learning well enough to use it. Such learning situations will run the gamut from the use of simple explanations, chalkboard diagrams, classroom discussions, questions and answers, to the development of more sophisticated simulation and game projects, as well as the use of teacher-made or commercial audiovisual aids. Problems of understanding should be attacked as soon as they appear, with careful attention to each individual's ability to prove a performance-level understanding.

Directly following the presentation, development, and clarification of new subject content to a group of students, periods of directed study must follow. As individual students apply their grasp of the subject to problem-solving situations, the teacher will move from individual to individual, adapting aids. This teacher task is difficult, but absolutely necessary, particularly in business mathematics.

In setting up the learning activities of the course, it may be advisable to keep in mind this five-step teaching pattern:

1. A simple, concise introductory discussion which provides essential background information for understanding the problem situation.
2. An illustrative example of the problem.
3. A model solution of the illustrative example and an explanation of the solution.
4. An exercise for immediate practice and initial mastery, consisting of problems similar to the one in the illustrative example.
5. A systematic program of spaced practice, at planned intervals, to insure retention.

Instructional aids. There are many instructional aids available to teachers of business mathematics. Most publishers provide workbooks, a teacher's key, and a teacher's manual to accompany their textbooks. Workbooks should be used to guide the student's study of the textbook. An effort should be made to incorporate pertinent current news items and make problems relevant to the community. "Busy work" and unnecessary repetition should be avoided.

The use of the chalkboard and the overhead projector is essential in a business mathematics course to illustrate the solution of different problems. Bulletin boards can also be used to arouse interest, motivate, stimulate, and instruct.

ACCOUNTING—FIRST YEAR

Grade Placement. Accounting courses should be offered as near the time of graduation as possible. In schools offering only one year of acounting the course should be offered in Grade twelve. Schools offering two years of accounting should begin the sequence in Grade eleven. If accounting is offered on alternate year basis, the course may be given in either Grade eleven or twelve.

Objectives. The student who successfully completes Accounting I should be able:

(1) To identify and use common accounting terms which may be utilized in daily business activities.

(2) To comprehend the importance of accounting to individuals to business enterprises, and to government.

(3) To develop an economic understanding of sound business procedure and management as revealed by the accounting records.

(4) To understand assets, liabilities, equity, income, and expense in order to analyze and interpret business situations.

(5) To interpret accounts and financial statements.

(6) To recognize the types of business organization and understand the basic accounting records for each type.

(7) To determine the sums of money paid in taxes of all types by individuals and business, and to identify the characteristics and advantages of accurate tax records.

(8) To develop a knowledge of business papers, related office procedures, and sound business practices and be acquainted with the business machines and equipment used in accounting and related work.

(9) To compare differences in manual and automated procedures in processing accounting data.

(10) To become acquainted with the abilities, attitudes, and ideals necessary for success in accounting and data processing careers.

(11) To explore an interest in and fitness for advanced accounting, and to promote growth toward a career by additional training in accounting beyond high school.

Content and Method. Any one of the commonly used accounting textbooks presents a logical development of the accounting cycle and related learning. For an advanced placement class it might be advisable to use a first-semester college text for at least a portion of the year. In either case, the teacher should feel free to devote as much time to a given unit as seems necessary for student understanding; in some classes no effort should be made for the students to study all units in the text. The most important phases are probably the introductory unit, the mastery of debit and credit through T-accounts, and the payroll-taxation unit. Certain emphases are important; for example, in the study of financial statements a careful examination should be made of the theory of profit and a fair rate of return on an investment and the services of an entrepreneur. The forms of financial statements should be developed by the teacher with the class, but the students should not be required to memorize the forms. The same is true of adjusting and closing entries. The teacher should consider the study of the work sheet as optional. The financial statements may be made directly from the trial balance and data for adjustments. Examinations on these topics should be designed to test understanding of concepts and interpretation of the facts presented rather than memory of format or details.

Regardless of techniques utilized in accounting instruction, successful teaching will require an approach that is based upon the accounting cycle and accounting equation. The manner of presentation should develop from the simple to the complex in a logical, sequential order. For best understanding, the approach utilized should permit parts or stages of the accounting cycle and accounting equation to be mastered before attempting to teach the whole accounting cycle and accounting equation.

Various approaches for introducing one to the study of accounting are used. The approach used will have a bearing on the order that subsequent topics are presented.

Practice Sets. At least one practice set with business papers may prove useful to the students. The teacher should discuss the nature of the business and provide day-to-day guidance for each individual student. Different plans can be used for working sets:

(1) Simulation of an actual business—The class is divided into small groups (one set per group) with each student having specialized tasks. Some other type of activity must be planned for students who are awaiting the set to perform their specific duties. Peer pressure and concern causes a speed-up of the process if this plan is used.

(2) Students are allowed a choice of two or three sets of varying length and difficulty. Maximum grades of A, B, or C are contracted for in advance according to the set chosen. Such a choice permits the student to select a type of set in which he has an interest (e.g., a farm set) and at the same time provides for varying abilities of students within a class. Choice-making (teacher-pupil planning) must take place well in advance of the time the set is to be started to allow sufficient time for the proper number of sets to be ordered from the publishers.

(3) Each student has one set. Students work individually or in small groups during class sessions. Students who finish first assist others.

A simple system of evaluation is best when grading sets. "Checkpoints" can be provided which permit students to check the accuracy of their own work at crucial points. The tests provided in the teachers' manuals are functional and fair.

Summary. The teacher of accounting should:

(1) Present the new topic before assigning it to be read.

(2) Use the chalkboard or transparencies in presenting new work or in reviewing work from previous day.

(3) Ask questions skillfully, avoiding "yes" or "no" responses unless "why" follows.

(4) Encourage everyone in class to participate each day.

(5) Relate content material to business practice in the local area, including large and small businesses of all types.

(6) Encourage students to share their own personal and on-the-job business experiences.

(7) Avoid assigning "busy work" and requiring students to work "lockstep".

(8) Attempt closure before going from one new topic to another. Teacher summarizing is important, but seek overt demonstration on the part of the students which repre-

sents cognitive closure. If students do not follow one specific process, it becomes doubly difficult for them to understand the cumulative development of ideas in accounting.

If the plan used in accounting is strictly one of individual progression or independent study with a determination made by each student of how far he will reach, both quality and quantity of work completed need to be considered. Whatever pattern is used in managing the class, a sufficient diversity of activity should be provided so that all students can pass the course if an effort is made on the part of the student.

The payroll-taxation unit is presented here as an example of a study guide approach which tends to increase student learning of broad concepts rather than narrowly conceived specific procedures. LEARNING THE NATURE OF TAXATION IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE STUDY OF PAYROLLS (Approximate time: one month, January, February, or March)

A. Behavioral Objectives

1. Given the U. S. Treasury Tax Kit, the student should be able to identify different kinds of taxes, various uses of tax revenues, and rank the types of taxes as to degree of fairness.
2. Given a reading assignment in one of the appropriate references below, the student should be able to explain the historical background of the Social Security system, different forms of taxation, and through class discussion, evaluate them in terms of societal needs.
3. Through working sample problems from the U. S. Treasury Tax Kit, the student will be able to determine the sums of money paid by business and individuals in taxes and identify in writing the characteristics and advantages of careful business and individual tax records.
4. Given reading assignments from the references below and from the individual investigation of the activities suggested, the student should be able in class discussion to identify and interpret the roles that governmental budget policy can play in stabilizing the economy.

B. Enabling Activities for Investigation and Discussion

1. Characteristics of a "good" tax
   a. A study of history shows that taxes have been levied on a wide variety of items. Use library resources to make a list of things that have been taxed by various

governments in history. What principle determines whether an item is suitable for taxation?

   b. What are the characteristics of progressive and regressive taxes?

   c. What is the best tax in terms of ease and efficiency of collection?

   d. What is the fairest tax in terms of the American way of life?

2. Types of taxes

   a. Explain the nature of income tax, excise tax, sales tax, real estate tax, personal property tax, inheritance tax, license taxes, tariffs, customs duties, and others.

   b. Tell which taxes are levied by the Federal Government and by your state and local governments.

   c. Trace the development of the federal income tax from the ratification of the Sixteenth Amendment in 1913 to the present. Show why the withholding system was adopted and how it has affected accounting practice.

3. Principles and purposes of taxation

   a. For what purposes does the Federal Government spend money?

   b. What forms of taxation provide federal, state, and local revenue and how much is collected annually?

   c. Do increased tax collections tend to reduce the purchasing power to private spenders?

   d. How does the governmental budgetary deficit or surplus affect total spending and the level of economic activity? It is desirable for the Federal Government to have a balanced budget? Why or why not?

   e. What is the relationship between private business and governmental finance?

   f. What are the individual's obligations to government?

   g. How can governments use taxation to encourage or discourage business enterprise? How have tariffs been used to protect home industries?

   h. Although Social Security payments are payroll deductions, the program is not intended to provide governmental revenue. What is its purpose? What events and forces of an economic nature brought about Social Security Legislation in 1933? Is the amount paid into Social Security a tax or insurance?

i. What tax policy would provide incentives to solve these problems?
   1) four-per cent hard core unemployment
   2) inability of people to afford college
   3) air and water pollution
   4) large numbers of people who earn less than $3,000 annually (the government defines this as poverty)
   5) antiquated industrial plants which need new machinery
   6) high auto death rate
   7) rise in cancer death rate
   8) widening gap between the rich and poor
   9) hazards of smoking
   10) poverty and suffering in underdeveloped countries

j. Use the existing tax code to locate tax provisions which presently exist to promote ends desirable for society and to deter practices which are thought to be undesirable. (You can find these in the Treasury Department Guide "Understanding Taxes" prepared for students.)

k. Show how taxes have been increased or decreased in order to control the rate of economic growth, e. g. The Kennedy tax cut (1963) and the Johnson tax increase through a surtax (1967).

l. Determine amounts of exemptions and deductions by consulting the U. S. Treasury Department guide for students. Try to learn why these are allowed; e. g., why is an exemption allowed for a child but not for a dog or cat? Why is an exemption allowed for contributing over half of the support of an aging parent?

m. Explain why some people who believe in using taxation to control business cycles are not concerned with keeping the federal budget balanced.

n. Study the tax system in five different states. Mention unique taxes used in Alabama, California, Illinois, New York, and North Dakota. Evaluate the tax systems in these states in terms of benefits to citizens and to the total economy.

o. Explain how the tax structure affects the attraction of new industry; e.g., why has industry found it profitable to move into the southern states in the past twenty years?

    p. Give a brief report (oral or written) on the contribution of each of the following economists to the development of modern theory on using tax policy to control economic growth and/or achieve socially desirable ends: John Maynard Keynes, Milton Friedman, Walter Rostow, John Kenneth Galbraith.

    q. When and why did the "withholding principle" come into being in relation to the federal income tax? Is this a fair requirement of federal government to make on the businessman? Of the individual? What is the effect on accounting records?

4. The responsibility of the taxpayer
    a. The importance of careful, consistent, accurate personal and business records for tax purposes.
    b. What is the responsibility of the taxpayer in a voluntary, self-assessment system of paying income taxes?
5. Practice filling out two 1040 Forms from the Treasury Tax kit.
6. Practice working with paycards, payroll computation, and payroll accounting entries.

REFERENCES FOR STUDENTS

Tax Information

"A Millionaire's Tax Return." *Life Magazine*, April 6, 1962, pp. 77-78, 83. If you can find this magazine in the files in your school library, read also the article "Hidden Taxes Hit You" on page 114.

"Understanding Taxes." United States Treasury Department, Internal Revenue Service, General and Farm, available free for all students if ordered by teacher or school (published annually).

Break, George F. "The Effects of Taxation on Work Incentives," *Private Wants and Public Needs*, W. W. Norton and Company, New York, 1962.

Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. 1967 Edition, "Taxes" and "Social Security."

Hoffman and Anderson. *Income Tax Principles and Procedures*, McGraw Hill, (published annually).

Rienow, Robert. *A New Look at Taxes*, Publication O. 473, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1965.

Stern, Phillip G. *The Great Treasury Raid*, Random House, New York, 1964.

World Almanac. "Social Security" and "Income Tax," 1969, (published annually).

Social Security pamphlets from local Social Security office.

Newspapers and Periodicals

New York Times. Microfilm and current issues in your school library.

Time Magazine. Microfilm and current issues.

U. S. News and World Report. Microfilm and current issues, *Wall Street Journal.*

INTEGRATION OF ACCOUNTING PRINCIPLES AND AUTOMATED DATA PROCESSING PROCEDURES IN ACCOUNTING — FIRST YEAR

Philosophy. The integration of automated data processing procedures in the accounting course does not mean that there are two types of first-year accounting courses. Rather, it is an attempt to make the first-year accounting course more realistic. Business does not separate accounting from automated data processing and neither should the school.

A review of the current literature in the areas of accounting and automated data processing indicates that automated data processing procedures should be incorporated into the accounting course. One example is a study by Huffman[1] in which 65 supervisors of business education were surveyed concerning the weaknesses in the vocational preparation of accountants. One of the major weaknesses was the indication that the statements of the aims of the accounting course show no relationship to automated data processing.

The Integration Process. The degree to which automated data processing procedures are integrated into the accounting course depends upon several factors: (1) the teacher's knowledge of automated data processing, (2) the ability of the students, (3) the supplies and facilities available, (4) the extent of automated data processing in use by local businesses, (5) the enthusiasm of the students, and (6) the purposes of the students who are enrolled in the accounting course.

Extreme detail is not important, so the teacher need not be an "expert" in the field of automated data processing. The stress should be on the relationship of automated data processing to accounting and the way it facilitates the use of accounting data in managerial decisions.

The following is an example of the application of data processing procedures and the accounting unit on payroll. Review the manual procedures relative to payroll, then, construct with the class a flow chart of the payroll procedure for processing time cards using punched card equipment. A possible solution might be the flow chart in Figure 1. Using the flow chart, discuss each step and have the students identify the punched card equipment that would perform the operation being discussed.

---

[1] Harry Huffman, "Vocational Education for Bookkeepers and Related Workers—Weaknesses of the Past and Present." *Business Education: An Evaluative Inventory,* Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, 1968. p. 61.

A possible format for the discussion is illustrated in Figure 2.

The question often asked is: "What can the accounting teacher, who has a limited knowledge of automated data processing principles with little or no automated equipment, do to incorporate automated data processing principles in the accounting course?"

Begin with a short introductory unit on automated data processing and accounting. The purposes of such a unit would be (1) to introduce students to the basic principles of automated data processing, (2) to show its effect upon accounting, and (3) to act as a motivating device. Such a unit should be taught after the first accounting cycle has been completed and might be organized as follows:

FIGURE 1 PROCESSING PAYROLL TIME CARDS

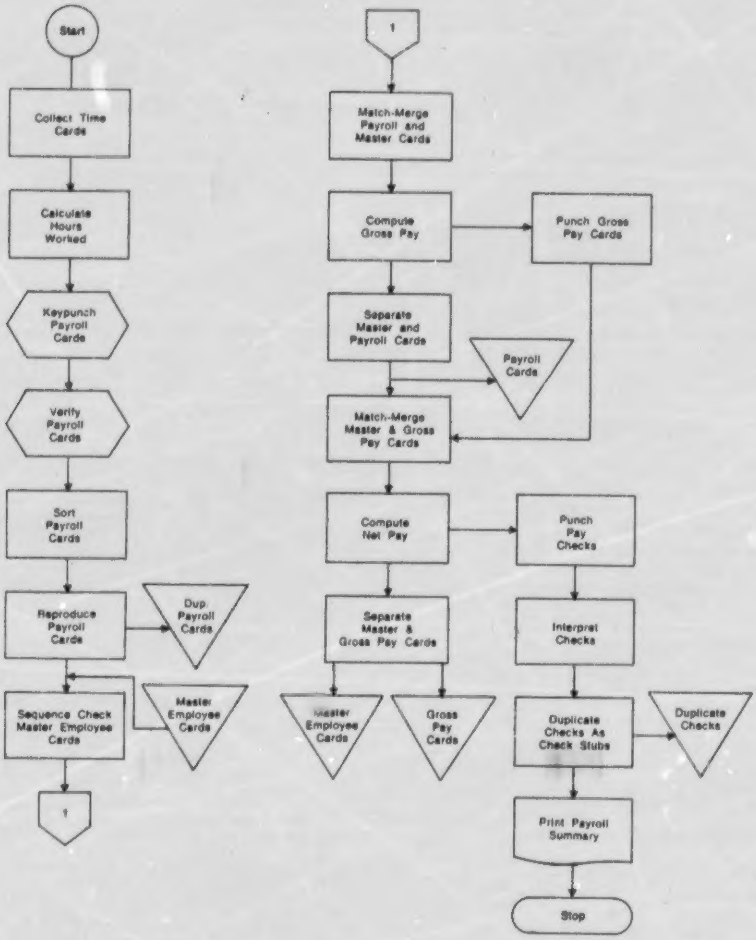

Start
Collect Time Cards
Calculate Hours Worked
Keypunch Payroll Cards
Verify Payroll Cards
Sort Payroll Cards
Reproduce Payroll Cards
Dup Payroll Cards
Sequence Check Master Employee Cards
Master Employee Cards
1
1
Match-Merge Payroll and Master Cards
Compute Gross Pay
Punch Gross Pay Cards
Separate Master and Payroll Cards
Payroll Cards
Match-Merge Master & Gross Pay Cards
Compute Net Pay
Punch Pay Checks
Separate Master & Gross Pay Cards
Interpret Checks
Master Employee Cards
Gross Pay Cards
Duplicate Checks As Check Stubs
Duplicate Checks
Print Payroll Summary
Stop

FIGURE 2. DISCUSSION FORMAT FOR PROCESSING PAYROLL TIME CARDS

PROCEDURE	*MACHINE*
Time cards collected and given to DP department	
Number of hours worked by each employee calculated	
Payroll cards keypunched	Keypunch
Payroll cards verified	Verifier
Payroll cards sorted by employee number	Sorter
Payroll cards reproduced	Reproducer
Master employee cards taken from file	
Sequence check master employee cards	Collator
Match-merge payroll cards with employee master cards	Collator
Compute gross pay and summary punch employee gross pay cards	Accounting Machine Reproducer
Separate master cards from payroll cards	Sorter
File payroll cards	
Match-merge master and gross pay cards	Collator
Compute net pay and summary punch pay checks	Accounting Machine Reproducer
Select master cards from gross pay cards	Sorter
File master cards	
File gross pay cards	
Interpret check cards	Interpreter
Duplicate checks to serve as check stub cards	Reproducer
Print summary of payroll using check stub cards	Accounting Machine
Send checks to check distribution center	

AUTOMATED DATA PROCESSING AND ACCOUNTING

An Introductory Unit

I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION
  A. Introduction to Unit
  B. Data Processing
    1. Definition
    2. History
    3. Manual Data Processing
      a. Write-it-once principle
      b. Carbonic register
      c. Keysort process
      d. Organizations which use manual data processing
    4. Mechanical Data Processing
      a. Bookkeeping machines
      b. Posting machines
      c. Billing machines
      d. Analysis and distribution machines
      e. Organizations which use mechanical data processing

II. AUTOMATED DATA PROCESSING SYSTEMS

A. Integrated Data Processing (IDP)
   1. Definition
   2. Punched paper tape
   3. Common language machines
   4. Flexowriter
   5. Organizations which use integrated data processing

B. Punched Card Data Processing

   1. Punched cards
      a. IBM card
      b. Remington Rand card
      c. Mark sensing
      d. Special cards

   2. Punched Card Data Processing Cycle
      a. Recording
      b. Classifying
      c. Calculating
      d. Summarizing
      e. Reporting

   3. Punched Card Automated Machinery
      a. Keypunch
      b. Verifier
      c. Sorter
      d. Reproducer
      e. Collator
      f. Calculator
      g. Accounting machine (tabulator)

   4. Organizations which use punched card automated machinery

C. Electronic Data Processing

   1. Definition

   2. Essential units
      a. Input unit
      b. Control unit
      c. Arithmetic unit
      d. Storage (memory) unit
      e. Output unit

   3. Organizations which use electronic data processing

III. ACCOUNTING AND AUTOMATION

- A. Impact on Accounting Procedures
  - 1. Automation of routine jobs
  - 2. Need for understanding principles
- B. Future of Accounting
  - 1. Automating of procedures
  - 2. "Why" instead of "How"
  - 3. Accounting still essential
- C. Future of Automated Data Processing
  - 1. Outlook
  - 2. New Developments
    - a. Smaller computers
    - b. Decreasing costs and rentals
    - c. Data processing service centers
- D. Job Opportunities
  - 1. New Jobs Created
  - 2. High School Graduates Qualify
  - 3. Entrance Jobs
  - 4. Requirements
    - a. Educational training
    - b. Skills
    - c. Ability to think
    - d. General intelligence
  - 5. Salary
  - 6. Advancement opportunities
  - 7. Additional training

Another method of incorporating automated data processing procedures into the accounting course would be to culminate each accounting unit with discussion and activities combining the accounting principles just learned with the automated data processing procedures studied in the introductory unit. The suggested activities for each of the following units are intended to serve as an "idea file" for developing concepts of how to integrate automated data processing procedures with accounting principles.

UNIT I — THE ACCOUNTING CYCLE

Suggested Student Activities

1. Flow chart the accounting cycle for a business with a manual accounting system.

2. Discuss what should be considered when a business is contemplating a change from manual to automated data processing.
3. Discuss what information the automated data processing system should provide management.
4. Determine the layout for the punched cards used when the simple accounting cycle is automated.
5. Record sample transactions to test card layout.
6. Discuss the machines necessary to automate the accounting cycle.
7. Discuss the following with relation to machine data processing:
    a. journalizing and posting
    b. proving cash
    c. balance sheet preparation (flow chart)
    d. income statement preparation (flow chart)
    e. closing the ledger (updating ledger for new fiscal period)
8. Discuss how automation changes certain manual accounting procedures.
9. Flow chart the accounting cycle for a business with an automated data processing system.
10. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of automating the accounting cycle.

UNIT II — SPECIAL JOURNALS

Suggested Student Activities

1. Flow chart the purchases, cash payments, sales, and cash receipts procedures.
2. Discuss how accounts payable and accounts receivable might be automated: master files, recording of purchases, cash payments, sales, cash receipts. Would control account procedures be streamlined?
3. Discuss how to obtain a creditor's or customer's account balance.
4. Discuss how to prove cash.
5. Discuss how to prepare schedules of accounts payable and accounts receivable.

6. Flow chart the manual and automated methods of preparing schedules of accounts receivable and accounts payable.
7. Flow chart and discuss the preparation of the trial balance.
8. Discuss the effects of automated procedures compared to the use of special journals.
9. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of automating the journalizing of transactions.
10. Determine the kinds of customer and creditor punched cards necessary for each type of transaction and process and plan the layout of each type of card.
11. Discuss the various uses to which the cards in activity 10 might be put.

UNIT III — BANKING SERVICES

Suggested Activities

1. Visit a bank that processes checks with magnetic ink character readers.
2. Discuss how banks process checks with automated equipment.
3. Discuss the importance of automated processing of checks by banks.
4. Discuss the uses of magnetic ink numbers on checks:
   a. to sort checks by bank identification numbers
   b. to sort checks by customers' account numbers
   c. to add the amount of all checks received
   d. to post check amounts to customers' accounts
   e. to sort checks by Federal Reserve numbers
5. Discuss how to reconcile the bank statement when transactions have been recorded on punched cards.
6. Invite a banker to discuss with the class the impact of automation on banking procedures.

UNIT IV — ADJUSTING AND CLOSING THE LEDGER

Suggested Student Activities

1. Discuss how accounts can be adjusted by punching an updated account card.

2. Discuss how closing process is simplified because closing the ledger is accomplished by filing the income, cost, and expense cards.
3. Discuss how an automated post-closing trial balance would be prepared.
4. Flow chart the automated closing process.

UNIT V - COMBINATION JOURNAL AND PETTY CASH

Suggested Student Activities

1. Discuss whether a business would need special journals if all transactions were recorded on punched cards or on magnetic tape.
2. Discuss how a business could use mark sense cards to record petty cash payments.
3. Design a mark sense card that could be used to record petty cash transactions.

UNIT VI - RETURNS, ALLOWANCES, AND DISCOUNTS

Suggested Activities

1. Discuss what fields should be included on punched cards for returns and allowance transactions.
2. Flow chart purchase and sales procedures; discuss how return and allowance cards would fit into the process.
3. Discuss the need for cash discount cards:
   a. They have no effect on accounts receivable and accounts payable general ledger cards.
   b. They are necessary for trial balance.
   c. They are needed for income statement in order to determine net income or net loss.
4. Discuss layout of the cash discount transaction card.

UNIT VII - PAYROLL TRANSACTIONS

Suggested Activities

1. Discuss what fields would be needed on a payroll card.
2. Discuss the need for a master employee name and address card.
3. Discuss necessary fields on master employee file cards. (Name, address, ID number, exemptions, etc.)

4. Flow chart calculation of weekly payroll, check preparation, and quarterly earnings records.

UNIT VIII - DEPRECIATION AND DISPOSAL OF FIXED ASSETS

Suggested Activities

1. Discuss what information would be necessary on a card in order to calculate depreciation.
2. Flow chart how to adjust ledger for depreciation for fiscal period.
3. Flow chart the procedure to be used when disposing of fixed assets.
4. Discuss how disposing, selling, and trade-in transactions would affect a punched card installation.

UNIT IX - BAD DEBTS

Suggested Activities

1. Discuss how the automated system would be used to calculate the amount of the allowance for bad debts.
2. Discuss how to adjust the allowance for bad debts accounts in an automated system.
3. Discuss the procedure to be used when writing off an uncollectible account in a punched card system.

UNIT X - THE CASH REGISTER AND SALES TAXES

Suggested Activities

1. Discuss how information on cash register papers would be keypunched and the resulting cards used to update the ledger.
2. Flow chart the above process.
3. Discuss how "paid outs" would be used to replenish petty cash and then flow chart the process.
4. Discuss the fields that would be necessary on cash sales and charge sales cards when sales taxes are involved.
5. Discuss how paying the sales tax liability affects a punched card accounting system.

UNIT XI - NOTES, INTEREST, AND ACCRUED EXPENSES

Suggested Activities

1. Discuss what information would be necessary on a punched card for computing interest on notes.
2. Discuss the fact that entries for notes received, interest on notes, dishonored notes, discounting of notes, and notes payable transactions would be keypunched and used to update the ledger just like any other transaction.
3. Discuss how special cards could be punched for accrued expenses.
4. Discuss how reversing the accrued expense entries would be accomplished using punched card equipment.

The accounting teacher who has access to punched card equipment has an opportunity to carry the integration process even further. An example of how punched cards can be used for recording transactions is explained by Hallam[1] in a recent issue of *Business Education World.*

Some Examples. Additional examples of flow charts which the teacher might use to integrate automated data processing procedures with first-year accounting are illustrated in Figures 3 through 7. Figure 3 illustrates a procedure for automating the replenishing of the petty cash fund. Figure 4 shows the procedure for updating the customer accounts when purchase returns and allowances have taken place. Figure 5 illustrates the procedure for automating the inventory process to provide management with an up-to-date inventory of all items in stock on any given day. Figure 6 illustrates an automated preparation of a Schedule of Accounts Receivable. Figure 7 shows the automation processes within the first accounting cycle.

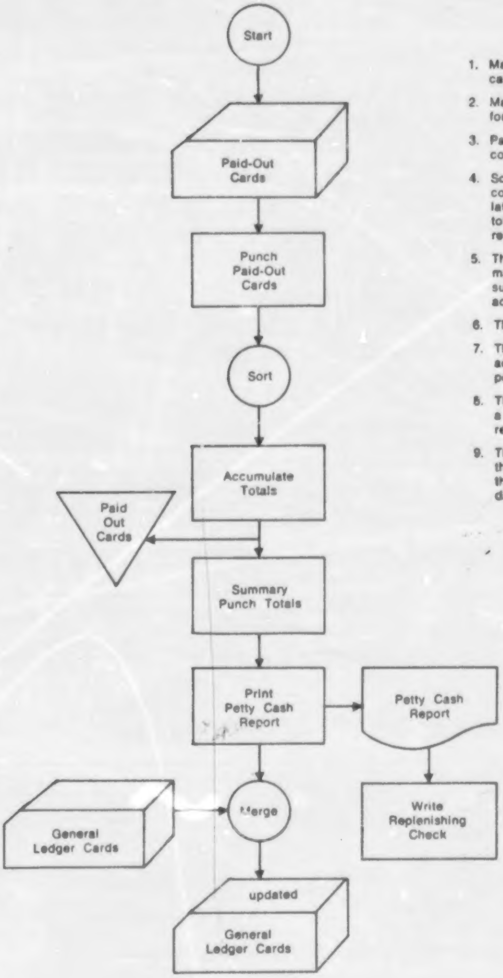
The following flow charts are simple illustrations of each procedure. They are by no means detailed and are not meant to be. Too much detail would only complicate the flow chart and make the points more difficult to understand. Some students might be challenged by pointing out areas of the flow chart which seem oversimplified.

When using flow charts to explain various automated accounting procedures, the teacher should stress two major reasons for using the flow charting activity. The first objective is for the students to understand and see in total the steps involved. The second objective is to illustrate how the procedures of automated data processing apply to the accounting principles being studied.

---

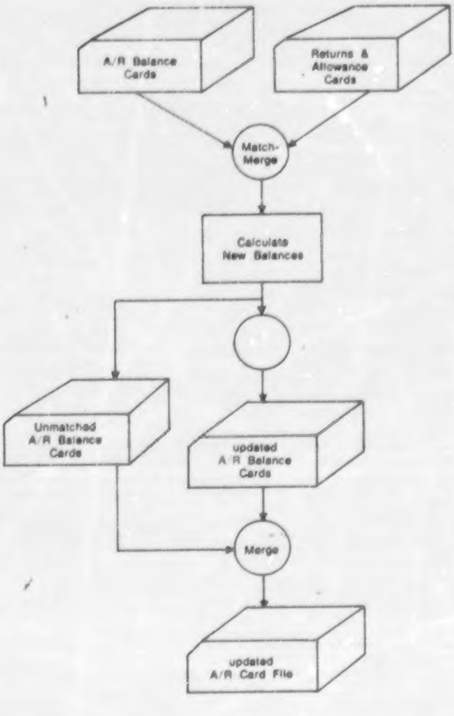
[1] James A. Hallam, "Using Data Processing Procedures in the High School Accounting Class," *Business Education World,* L (March-April, 1970), pp. 12-13.

FIGURE 3. REPLENISHING PETTY CASH


Start
Paid-Out Cards
Punch Paid-Out Cards
Sort
Accumulate Totals
Paid Out Cards
Summary Punch Totals
Print Petty Cash Report
Petty Cash Report
Write Replenishing Check
General Ledger Cards
Merge
updated General Ledger Cards

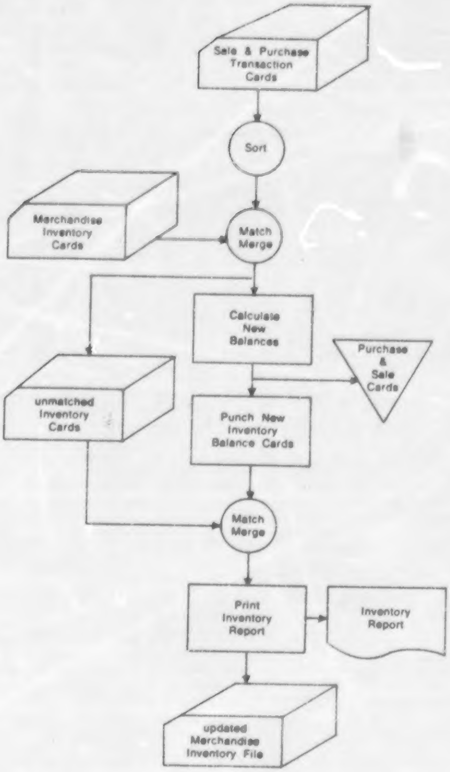
1. Mark sense paid-out cards are taken from cash register.
2. Mark sense cards are placed in reproducer for punching.
3. Paid-out cards are sorted according to account number.
4. Sorted paid-out cards are placed in accounting machine and totals are accumulated for each account including the grand total as a basis for writing the check to replenish petty cash.
5. The totals accumulated by the accounting machine are fed to the reproducer for summary punching total cards for each account.
6. The individual paid-out cards are filed.
7. The account total cards are placed in the accounting machine and a petty cash report is printed.
8. The printed petty cash report serves as a basis for manually writing the check to replenish petty cash.
9. The account total cards are merged with the general ledger cards to be used at the end of the month to prepare an updated general ledger card file.

FIGURE 4. THE USE OF CUSTOMER RETURN AND ALLOWANCE TRANSACTION CARDS TO UPDATE THE CUSTOMER ACCOUNT BALANCE CARDS


A/R Balance Cards
Returns & Allowance Cards
Match-Merge
Calculate New Balances
Unmatched A/R Balance Cards
updated A/R Balance Cards
Merge
updated A/R Card File

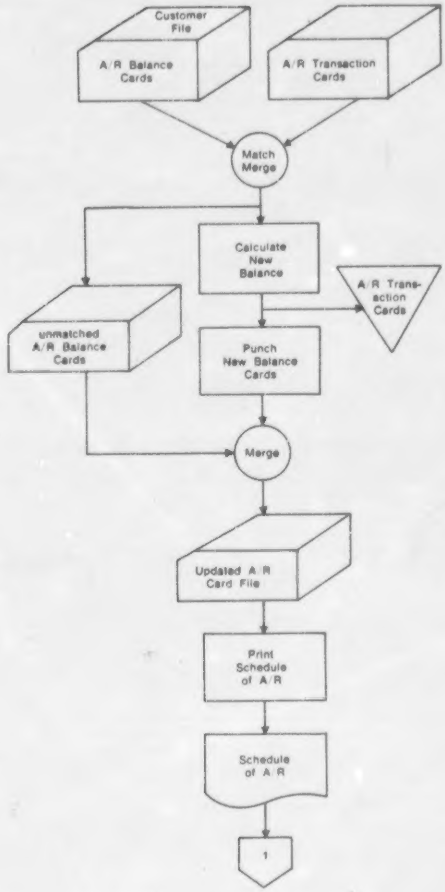
1. Accounts receivable balance cards are matched-merged with customer return and allowance cards.
2. The matched-merged customer cards are placed in the accounting machine and a corrected customer account balance is calculated.
3. Updated accounts receivable balance cards are summary punched by the reproducer.
4. The unmatched accounts receivable cards from the match-merge operation are now merged with the updated accounts receivable cards.
5. The result is a complete updating of the accounts receivable balance cards (customer account cards).

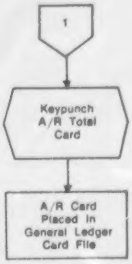
FIGURE 5 AUTOMATED UPDATING OF MERCHANDISE INVENTORY (STOCK)


Sale & Purchase Transaction Cards
Sort
Merchandise Inventory Cards
Match Merge
Calculate New Balances
Purchase & Sale Cards
unmatched Inventory Cards
Punch New Inventory Balance Cards
Match Merge
Print Inventory Report
Inventory Report
updated Merchandise Inventory File

1. Transaction cards for sales to customers and purchases of new stock items are sorted by item numbers.
2. The transaction cards are match-merged with the inventory cards.
3. The match-merged deck is placed in the accounting machine and a new balance card is summary punched by the reproducer.
4. The transaction cards are filed.
5. The newly punched balanced cards are match-merged by the collator with the unmatched inventory cards from the previous match-merge operation.
6. The resulting updated deck is placed in the accounting machine and an inventory report is printed.
7. The updated inventory deck is filed for use during the next merchandise inventory update procedure.

FIGURE 6. PREPARATION OF SCHEDULE OF ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE


Customer File
A/R Balance Cards
A/R Transaction Cards
Match Merge
Calculate New Balance
A/R Transaction Cards
unmatched A/R Balance Cards
Punch New Balance Cards
Merge
Updated A/R Card File
Print Schedule of A/R
Schedule of A/R
1


1
Keypunch A/R Total Card
A/R Card Placed in General Ledger Card File

1. The customer accounts receivable cards are matched-merged with the accounts receivable transaction cards (sales, payments on account, etc.)
2. The resulting deck is taken from the collator and placed in the accounting machine which calculates the new balance for each customer and summary punches a new balance card.
3. The transaction cards are filed.
4. The customer new balance cards are placed in the collator and match-merged with the unmatched customer cards from the previous match-merge operation.
5. The updated accounts receivable file is placed in the accounting machine and a schedule of accounts receivable is printed.
6. The total from the accounts receivable schedule is keypunched into a new general ledged card for accounts receivable.
7. The new balance card for accounts receivable is manually placed in the general ledger card file and the old accounts receivable account card is destroyed.

Evaluation. Measurement and evaluation in accounting should relate directly to the objectives which were communicated to the students in the early stages of the course. The classroom serves as a laboratory where most students can complete assigned work with teacher assistance. Effective floor work is as important in accounting as it is in typewriting. If the teacher is carefully scrutinizing the work of each individual, with ensuing discussion of unclear points, students will usually find satisfaction in performing accounting problems. If the size of the room permits, it is advisable to have students work in small groups, checking each other's work. If a block or unit or work is assigned, time is saved if solutions are placed on an overhead projector so that the students can check their work without taking an undue amount of class time. Verbal and written classroom work of the students should be considered in evaluation. Library or other investigation projects should also be included.

FIGURE 7. THE FIRST ACCOUNTING CYCLE—AUTOMATED

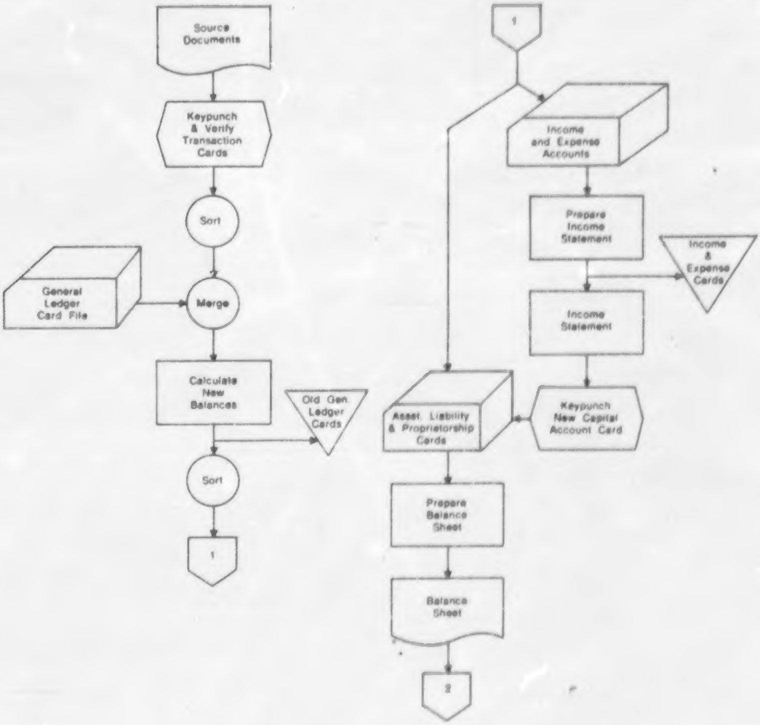
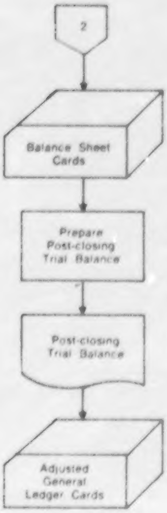

Source Documents
Keypunch & Verify Transaction Cards
Sort
General Ledger Card File
Merge
Calculate New Balances
Old Gen. Ledger Cards
Sort
1
1
Income and Expense Accounts
Prepare Income Statement
Income & Expense Cards
Income Statement
Keypunch New Capital Account Card
Asset, Liability & Proprietorship Cards
Prepare Balance Sheet
Balance Sheet
2

FIGURE 7
(Cont.)


2
Balance Sheet Cards
Prepare Post-closing Trial Balance
Post-closing Trial Balance
Adjusted General Ledger Cards

1. Information from source documents is keypunched into transaction cards and then verified.
2. Transaction cards are sorted by account numbers.
3. Transaction cards are placed in collator and merged with the general ledger card file.
4. The resulting deck is placed in the accounting machine and new account balances are calculated. At the same time the reproducer summary punches new account balance cards.
5. The old general ledger balance cards are filed.
6. The new general ledger balance cards are sorted by account number and then grouped into two decks—all asset, liability, and proprietorship cards in one deck, all income and expense cards in another deck.
7. The income and expense deck is placed in the accounting machine and an income statement is prepared.
8. The income and expense cards are filed. (This step corresponds to closing entries in the manual accounting procedure.)
9. The income statement or loss figure is used with the old capital account card to update the capital figure and a new capital card is keypunched and placed in the asset, liability, and proprietorship deck from the previous sorting operation.
10. The asset, liability, and proprietorship deck is placed in the accounting machine and a balance sheet is prepared.
11. A quick change of control panels and the same asset, liability, and proprietorship deck is placed in the accounting machine again and a post-closing trial balance is prepared.
12. The asset, liability, and proprietorship deck is now filed for use during the next fiscal period.

Short tests, given frequently, after the introduction of new topics, will aid the teacher in determining the rate of presentation appropriate for the majority of the students. Publishers' tests are excellent review devices for units of work but should *not* be used as a portion of the student's grade in that such tests are limited to only the information in the textbook. Unit tests should be teacher prepared and may be open or closed book, but should not require memory of format or details. Rather, tests should stress analysis and interpretation of information provided by the many sources available. Tests should always be based on the objectives for the unit, and if all activities have been related to the objectives, students should feel secure and be able to achieve more. The teacher-student consultation from day to day aids in mutual agreement and understanding.

ACCOUNTING SECOND YEAR

Accounting II provides the student with an opportunity to develop a deeper knowledge of accounting procedures and techniques utilized in solving business problems. This course is definitely vocational in nature. After two years of study, the accounting student should be able to initiate and keep a single entry or double entry set of books. He should have had experience in manual and automated data processing procedures in processing accounting data. He should have had the opportunity to analyze managerial problems using accounting information as a tool. The objectives for Accounting II are a continuation and extension of those given for first-year accounting. Any of the advanced high school texts develop suitable topics. Although practice in procedures is important, even greater stress should be given the thought processes of analysis, interpretation, and synthesis.

Occupations Available. The successful completion of two years of accounting should contribute to the preparation for many different occupations some of these occupations may not be accounting per se, but may utilize accounting in management or marketing occupations. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* lists several principal occupational categories in the areas of accounting and bookkeeping.

DOT	*Occupational Title*
160	Accountants and Auditors
161	Budget Management Analysis Occupations
162	Purchasing Management Occupations
210	Bookkeepers
211	Cashiers
212	Tellers
213	Automatic Data Processing Equipment Operators
214	Billing Machine Operators
215	Bookkeeping Machine Operators
216	Computing Machine Operators
217	Account Recording Machine Operators
219	Computing and Account-Recording Occupations

Method. In that students enter this course with varying degrees of aptitude and previous achievement, the teacher may well wish to use the principle of individual progression. This suggests some large group lecture and discussion, and some work in small groups and a considerable amount of work on an individual basis. It is not recommended to keep the students in "lockstep" formation all through the course, but rather with the use of guide sheets encourage each student to progress as fast as he is able and to take unit tests when his performance indicates he is ready. Analyzing case problems is a worthwhile activity for small groups who can then compare solutions.

SELECTED REFERENCES

ACCOUNTING AND DATA PROCESSING

Boynton, Lewis D. *Methods of Teaching Bookkeeping-Accounting*, Cincinnati, Ohio: Southwestern Publishing Company, 1970.

Hallam, James A. "Using Data Processing Procedures in the High School Accounting Class," *Business Education World*, L (March-April, 1970), pp. 12-13.

Huffman, Harry. "Vocational Education for Bookkeepers and Related Workers—Weaknesses of the Past and Present," *Business Education: An Evaluative Inventory*, Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, 1968. Chap. 6, pp. 60-70.

Majernik, John A. "Automation: First Aid for Bookkeeping", *Journal of Business Education*, November, 1968, pp. 57-58.

Schmidt, B. June. "The Teaching of High School Accounting, Bookkeeping, and Recordkeeping," Contributions of Research to Business Education, Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, 1971, Chap. 8, pp. 68-77.

A Guide to Business Education in Florida Schools. Bulletin 72, Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1967. Bookkeeping 1 and 2. Syllabus, Albany, New York: The State Education Department, Bureau of Business and Distributive Education, 1964.

BUSINESS MATHEMATICS

Nolan, C. A., Carlos K. Hayden, and Dean R. Malsbary. *Principles and Problems of Business Education*, 3rd edition Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1967.

Rosenberg, R. Robert. "Taking Inventory in Business Mathematics," *Business Education World*, Vol. 50, No. 3 (December, 1969), pp. 24-25.

Satlow, I. David. "Providing Practice to Assure Learning," *Business Education World*, Vol. 48, No. 8 (April, 1968), pp. 19-20. Part 6 in a series of articles concerning business arithmetic, beginning October, 1967, through June, 1968, of the *Business Education World*.

Tonne, Herbert A., Estelle Popham, and M. Herbert Freeman. *Methods of Teaching Business Subjects*, 3rd edition New York: Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965.

DATA PROCESSING CAREER OBJECTIVE

The paper work demands of modern business have made data processing a household word and created many opportunities for gainful employment. Evidence shows that students graduating from quality high school data processing programs can fill entry level positions in the data processing field.

Curricula in data processing in the high schools and area vocational centers may differ according to student and community needs and available resources. Data processing instruction should meet the general education needs of business students and provide for the development of vocational competency sufficient for entry-level jobs.

Philosophy. Data processing instruction should be attuned to the needs of the student and to those of the community. The structure of the data processing curriculum will vary from school to school. The program may consist of only a one-semester introductory course in one school, particularly in a smaller school, while a two- or three-year program might be offered in another school and especially in area vocational centers. Units of instruction may be integrated into various business subjects such as accounting, Business I or II, clerical practice, and office machines.

Occupations Available. Approximately three-quarters of a million people are employed in automated data processing occupations. Growth in the field since the 1950's has been phenomenal and has resulted in an increased demand for data processing personnel. The Diebold group has predicted that 160,000 computers will be in use by 1975, while just one decade ago the number of computers in use totaled less than 5,000.[1]

Computer applications are now known in many fields in our society, and the new uses are limited only by man's ingenuity. Careers exist not only in the operational areas of the equipment but also in the maintenance, sales, and production areas of data processing. Occupations available, according to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, are:

Dot	*Occupational Title*
020.188	Programmers
033.187	Systems Analysts
213.382	Console Operators
213.382	Card-to-Tape Converter Operators
213.382	Tape-to-Card Converter Operators and High Speed Printer Operators
213.582	Key Punch Operators
213.588	Data Typists

---

[1] *Administrative Management*, February, 1970. p. 58.

Subjects. The sequence of courses in a data processing program in the secondary schools generally takes the following pattern:

Grade 10—Introduction to Data Processing (one semester—general education and/or vocational education)

Grade 11—Unit Record Equipment (one semester, vocational)

Grade 11—Introduction to Computer Programming (one year, vocational)

Grade 12—Data Processing Applications (one year, vocational)

The extent of the offerings depends upon the courses and availability of equipment and qualified personnel.

Students who have a basic skill in typewriting can be trained for initial keypunch occupations in a matter of a few weeks of instruction. These units may be offered in such courses as office practice, office machines, or even in second-year typewriting.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Awad, Elias M. *Automatic Data Processing.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1970.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education, *Curricular Implications of Automated Data Processing for Educational Institutions,* by F. Kendrick Bangs and others, Colorado University, Final Report, Bureau No. BR-5-0144, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Electronic Business Data Processing Peripheral Equipment Occupations,* Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1964.

Wanous, Wanous, Wagner. *Fundamentals of Data Processing.* South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1971.

Wood, Merle W. *The Teaching of Automated Data Processing in the High School,* Monograph 116. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1968.

INTRODUCTION TO DATA PROCESSING

Description. Introduction to data processing is an orientation course in which students are introduced to data processing methods, utilizing manual, mechanical, electromechanical, and electronic processes. Students should understand the demand for improved data systems in business and other fields. The course also includes a general introduction to computer programming and a study of the computer and society.

Objectives. Upon completion of the course, a student who is given the opportunity to participate in teacher-designed learning activities should be able:

1. To list five data processing job titles and give two duties or responsibilities for each job.
2. To describe, sketch, give an example or tell the function of one calculating, one posting, and one recording process used in each of the following data processing methods: manual, mechanical, electromechanical, and electronic.
3. To point to a specific edge, face, or column of a standard IBM punched card.
4. To design card fields to accommodate numbers and letters of varying lengths.
5. To read any number, letter or special coded character (Hollerith) into an IBM punched card.
6. To identify four types of punched cards and give a reason for their special design.
7. To punch any number, letter, special character, or functional control key dictated at a given rate.
8. To plan, punch, and use a program drum card designed to duplicate, skip, and shift at specific columns on the card.
9. To identify error and non-error cards before they reach the card stacker within a given tolerance of accuracy.
10. To identify error and non-error cards from a deck of repunched cards within a given tolerance of accuracy.
11. To pick out error cards from a deck of verified cards within a given tolerance of accuracy.
12. To identify error cards from a deck by comparing the source document with a tabulated print-out within a given tolerance of accuracy.
13. To describe, sketch, or perform alphabetical, numerical, and block-sorting operations.
14. To describe, sketch, or perform the following collator operations: matching, merging, selecting, and sequence checking.
15. To identify from a deck of cards, cards that have been fully interpreted, selectively interpreted, key-punched with the print-on, and key-punched with the print-off.
16. To describe, sketch, or perform the following reproducer operations: gang punching, summary punching, and mark-sense conversion.

17. To sketch, describe, or give an example of a machine that uses each of the following printing processes: serial, parallel, detail, and group.

18. To identify detail and summary printouts from an accounting machine.

19. To sketch, describe, or give an example of the way totals are accumulated in the accounting machine.

20. To name two machines involved in summary punching.

21. To identify a control tape and sketch or describe its function.

22. To list the steps in the data processing cycle in correct order.

23. To name four source documents.

24. To list two reasons for the accumulation of data.

25. To sketch, list, or describe four input media or systems.

26. To list, describe, or give an example of three ways to manipulate data.

27. To sketch, list, or describe four output media or systems.

28. To name two characteristics of two types of computers.

29. To list, describe, or give an example of three general applications for which computers are used.

30. To sketch or describe the data processing cycle involving the computer and an example at each step in the cycle.

31. To list, describe, or illustrate three characteristics of primary storage.

32. To list, describe, or illustrate three characteristics of secondary storage.

33. To sketch, describe, or give an example of how data may be stored in a magnetic core.

34. To describe, illustrate, or give an example of a parity check.

35. To list, describe, or illustrate three advantages of magnetic tape and the magnetic drum.

36. To describe or illustrate destructive readout.

37. To list, describe, or illustrate the ways the computer is able to perform logical and arithmetical functions.

38. To list, sketch, or describe four functions of the control unit.

39. To list, sketch, or describe the objectives and equipment necessary to complete a given programming problem.

40. To identify logically and illogically written flow charts.

41. To label a given flow chart with the documents necessary to complete the problem.

42. To label ten flow chart symbols and describe or illustrate a purpose for each.

43. To complete an incomplete flow chart with the symbols requiring branching and looping.

44. To translate any six-digit decimal number into binary.

45. To add, subtract, multiply, or divide four-digit binary numbers.

46. To label source, compiler, and object program printouts.

47. To write a source program for a given problem.

48. To identify illogically written steps in a given source program.

49. To define, write, and run a computer program solving a given problem.

Grade placement. This course should be offered in grades 10-12 and should be available to all students.

I. DATA PROCESSING METHODS

   A. Manual Methods (origination, input, processing, output)

   B. Mechanical Methods (origination, input, processing, output)

   C. Electromechanical Methods (origination, input, processing, output)

   D. Electronic Methods (origination, input, processing, output)

II. THE UNIT RECORD

   A. The Punched Card (card types, edges and faces, columns and fields, Holierith code)

- B. The Card Punch (alphabetic and numeric punching, card planning and layout, the program card)
- C. Verifying (observation, re-punching, use of a verifier, printing on a tabulator)
- D. The Sorter (numeric sorting, alphabetic sorting, block sorting)
- E. The Collator (matching, merging, selecting, sequence checking, collating)
- F. The Interpreter
- G. The Reproducer (gang punching, summary punching, mark-sense punching, reproducing)
- H. The Accounting Machine (printing and listing, detail and group printing, accumulating totals, summary punching, the control tape)

III. THE DATA PROCESSING CYCLE AND MEDIA

- A. Origination (types of source document, reasons for accumulation of data)
- B. Input—Systems and Media (punched card, punched paper tape, magnetic tape, discs, drum, and microfilm, card read/punch, plotter, data converters, OCR and MICR, and cathode ray tube)
- C. Manipulation (computation, storage and retrieval, classifying, sorting, and summarizing)
- D. Output — Systems and Media (printouts, punched cards, punched paper tape, magnetic tape, discs, drum, microfilm)

IV. ELECTRONIC DATA PROCESSING

- A. Types of Computers (digital, analog) and Applications (simulation, real-time, delayed time)
- B. Components of a Computer System
    1. Source documents
    2. Input
    3. Manipulation (storage-retrieval, arithmetic/logic, control unit)
- C. Programming
    1. Analysis of problem and equipment
    2. Flow charting (logic, document flow, symbols,

    branching and looping)
    3. Binary code (number representation, computations)
    4. Coding (source programs, compiler programs, object programs, debugging)

V. DATA PROCESSING JOB DESCRIPTIONS AND OPPORTUNITIES

A. Key Punch Operators

B. Data Typists

C. Media Converter Operators

D. Console Operators

E. Tape Librarians

F. Programmers

G. Systems Analysts

VI. THE COMPUTER AND SOCIETY

A. Implications (social, economic)

B. Applications (business, science, mathematics, education)

Instructional Methods and Techniques. Students may code their names and other information into a mark-sense card to facilitate learning the Hollerith code. Later on, the reproducer may be used to convert the cards into standard cards. The accounting machine may then be used to printout the coded information in a given order.

Overhead projector transparencies are helpful to locate the parts of the machines and to aid in discussing the operations and functions of such machines.

A research project relative to the different kinds of data processing equipment and its many manufacturers teaches students how to gather information from outside sources.

Guest speakers, including former graduates, may be invited to enrich a particular unit or to discuss data processing opportunities in general.

Demonstrations by the manufacturers of the equipment in the classroom stimulates additional interest.

Field trips to data processing installations are almost a necessity, as they provide students with the opportunity to see all types of equipment in operation. Elicit cooperation from business to provide a computer, punched cards, tabulator printouts, control panel, and simulated management games.

A file maintained by the students containing magazine and newspaper articles, cartoons and samples of punched card materials, i.e., utility bills, stimulates an awareness of the impact of data processing.

Written, explicit behavioral objectives that are communicated to the students should be used as the basis for examination. Filmstrips with sound or a slide program coordinated with a tape recording serve as excellent devices to help individualize instruction, particularly so because of the heavy emphasis on demonstration.

A task sheet or time diary kept by data processing personnel on the job is an excellent source of firsthand information about specific jobs and may be obtained with no more effort than a phone call.

A follow-through application problem, using all the data processing equipment, is necessary in order that students can get the "feel" of data processing. Wall charts may be substituted if equipment is not available. A particularly relevant problem might be the recording and tabulating of final grades based on a point system.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Awad, Elias M. *Business Data Processing*, Vol. II. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1968.

Elliott, D. Orville, and Roger H. Hermanson. *Programmed Learning Aid for Introduction to Data Processing*, Learning Systems Company, Homewood, Illinois, 1970.

Hanson, Peggy. *Keypunching*, Second Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1970.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education, *Electronic Business Data Processing Peripheral Equipment Occupations Suggested Curricula*, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1964.

Introduction to Data Processing, The State University of New York, The State Education Department, Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development, Albany, New York, 1968.

DATA PROCESSING APPLICATIONS

Description. This course is designed to provide the student with an understanding of selected business applications as well as with an opportunity to apply computer programming knowledge and skill.

The course may be combined with the introduction to Computer Programming course as a two-hour block of time. In such an arrangement, data processing applications may be offered in the second semester.

Objectives. Upon completion of the course, the student should be able:

1. To demonstrate an understanding of terms such as application study, systems flow chart, system and procedure manual, documentation, sales order and billing, sales analysis, payroll, and inventory.
2. To document effectively an application which has been automated.
3. To describe the work to be done in automating an application from problem definition to the running of live work on a computer.
4. To be able to prepare flow charts for two or more selected applications.
5. To describe and organize a data base.
6. To organize a data file on magnetic tape or disk.
7. To describe the job of a business application programmer in terms of duties, responsibilities, worker qualifications and traits, and working conditions.

Grade Placement. This course should be offered in the 12th grade. If the student is enrolled in Introduction to Computer Programming during the 11th grade, he may use this course as related instruction in a cooperative work-experience program.

I. INTRODUCTION

II. DEFINITION OF APPLICATION STUDIES
   - A. Content
   - B. Design
   - C. Development of Specifications
   - D. Study Schedule
   - E. Fact Gathering

III. DESIGNING INPUT-OUTPUT
   - A. Codes and Data Preparation
   - B. Data Base Development

- C. File Organization
- D. File Maintenance
- E. Sort-Merges
- F. Forms Design

- IV. APPLICATION IMPLEMENTATION
  - A. Program Narrative
  - B. Flow Charting
  - C. Input/Output Formats
  - D. Control Techniques
  - E. Subroutines and Automatic Programming Aids
  - F. Test Data
  - G. Conversion
  - H. Procedure Write-Up

- V. SALES-ORDER AND BILLING APPLICATION
  - A. Data Origination
  - B. Editing and Approval Procedures
  - C. Sales Invoices, Bills of Lading
  - D. Substitution and Backorder Procedures
  - E. Sales Analysis
  - F. Statement Preparation

- VI. PAYROLL APPLICATION
  - A. Data Origination, Time Records
  - B. Computation of Net Pay
  - C. State and Federal Taxes
  - D. Payroll Earnings and Tax Reports
  - E. Labor Distribution Reports
  - F. Deduction Registers

- VII. INVENTORY APPLICATION
  - A. Data Origination, Inventory Records

B. Balances, Receipts, and Issues
C. Inventory Systems
D. Inventory Pricing
E. Automatic Re-Order Procedures
F. Raw Materials Distribution Reports

VIII. PURCHASING APPLICATION
A. Data Origination
B. Purchasing Procedures
C. Purchase Orders
D. Purchasing Reports
E. Returns, Credit Memos
F. Receiving Reports

IX. OTHER APPLICATIONS
A. Personnel
B. Policyholders
C. Investments

X. HUMAN RELATIONS
A. Personality Development
B. Work in a Computer Installation
C. Getting a Job
D. Job Progress

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The lecture-discussion method should prevail throughout the first three units listed above. Following a study of these units, the class should be divided into teams of two to four students. Each team should choose an application for study. The teacher will need to assist each team in its initial approach and to define the general boundaries. Following a study of the chosen application, each team should design forms, develop data gathering and recording procedures, organize data files, prepare flow charts, write computer programs, test and debug the programs, and then document carefully what has been done.

Checkpoints should be built into the projects. When checkpoints are reached, the teacher gives approval for continuance or, if necessary, assists the team in correcting errors.

Only after a team has successfully written, tested, debugged, and documented one application, should it be permitted to initiate study of a second one.

The teacher should insist upon accuracy, completeness, and consistency in developing work habits. Computer programming sophistication—decreasing processing time and storage requirements, improve program efficiency in general and advanced programming techniques—should be emphasized.

Where cooperative work-education is not possible, students should make installation visits. An attempt should be made to choose firms which have automated the applications students are learning.

As this is the capstone course for the data processing occupational program, students should be given assistance in obtaining a job. Personality development, job expectations, and ways to obtain a job should be discussed. Advisory committee members or other lay members of the community may serve as resource speakers. Attempts should be made by the teacher to put students in contact with potential employers.

Instructional Aids. The overhead projector is probably the most important instructional aid needed for this course. Students should be expected to use coding forms, flow charting paper, and template similar to those used in local computer installations. Ample chalkboard space is essential as is access to unit record equipment and/or a computer. Wiring boards (one for each two students) are also helpful. Keypunching practice may be obtained in this course or in the office machines course.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Case Study in Business Systems Design Laboratory Manual, Palo Alto, California: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1970.

Daniels, Alan, and Donald Yeates, eds., *Systems Analysis*, Palo Alto, California: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1971.

General Information Manuals, Accounting Applications. IBM Corporation.

Randall, Clarence, and Sally Burgaly. *Systems and Procedures for Business Data Processing*, Second Edition. Cincinnati, Ohio: Southwestern Publishing Co., 1969.

INTRODUCTION TO COMPUTER PROGRAMMING

Description. This course is designed to provide a foundation for understanding computer programming. It includes a study of the functions, logic, and programming methods of modern digital computers. Although emphasis is placed upon typical business applications and the COBOL language. While it is usually taught in the business department, computer programming might also be taught in the mathematics or science departments, each using a language suitable to their specific needs.

Objectives. Upon completion of the course, the student should be able:

1. To define general data processing terms, such as file, record, field, batch processing, sequential and random access, CPU, etc.
2. To demonstrate an understanding of proper documentation techniques, i.e., flow charts, file layouts, decision tables, coding, and testing.
3. To identify and discuss storage devices, their function and structure.
4. To discuss the place of data processing in a business environment.
5. To use diagnostic listings in debugging computer programs.
6. To be able to write computer programs to solve problems using the COBOL programming language.
7. To demonstrate an understanding of addressing, address modification, instruction modification, looping, and branching.
8. To explain the purpose and function of a compiler.

Grade Placement. Introduction to computer programming should not be offered before the 11th grade. It may be completed by the student in the 12th grade.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Definition of a Computer
   1. Development of computer equipment
   2. Overview of computer components (central processing unit, input/output external storage, peripheral equipment)
   3. Uses for computers (record-keeping and problem-solving, information systems, control systems)

B. Data Processing Occupations (personnel requirements, equipment operators, programmers, analysts)

II. COMPUTER COMPONENTS

A. Input/Output Devices (card-read punch, printer, disk and tape drives)

B. Central Processing Unit
   1. Arithmetic-logic (binary numbering system, hexadecimal system, registers, control)
   2. Primary storage (memory—data representation, data and instruction storage, memory positions)

C. External Storage
   1. Magnetic disk (disk packs, disk units, reading and writing, record lengths, addressing)
   2. Magnetic tape (tape drives, reading and writing, records, reels, and files, addressing)

III. PROBLEM-SOLVING WITH COMPUTERS

A. Problem Definition

B. Analysis and Solution (decision tables, flow charts)

C. Implementation (coding sheets, coding, program preparation, program assembly)

D. Program Test (use of test data, debugging)

E. Documentation (run manuals)

IV. COMPUTER PROGRAMMING

A. Introduction to COBOL (development and overview)

B. COBOL Divisions (procedure, data, identification, environment)

C. Programming Techniques (writing instructions, data organization, program loops, subroutines, table look-up)

D. Program Debugging (aids, programming check points, diagnostics, memory dumps)

V. PROGRAMMING SYSTEMS

A. Input/Output Control Systems

B. Monitors and Supervisory Systems

C. System Control Techniques

D. Overview of FORTRAN, Report Program Generator, and Assembler Languages

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The lecture-discussion method should be employed in a spiral development plan. Lectures can be enriched with illustrations and demonstrations, and the instructor should extensively utilize the overhead projector and well-prepared transparency foils.

Each lesson should build upon the previous one, progressing from simple to complex understanding. Following the presentation of new material, assignments of a learning activity should be made for application and reinforcement purposes.

Students should be expected to write several computer programs. The first one should be short and simple, and the teacher may wish to "walk" the students through this first program. However, students should be made responsible for the remainder of the programs to be written. Each subsequent program should increase slightly in difficulty.

A team approach, in which two students comprise one team, may be used effectively. This approach is recommended only when class size exceeds fifteen students and/or where equipment availability prohibits extensive usage for student programs.

Some on-hands experience is highly desirable for students. The objective of the course is to learn programming. Attention must be directed to writing programs—not to computer console operation.

Students should be expected to develop good work habits, including neatness, particularly in the laboratory. Laboratory practices should be explained and students should follow them.

Instruction in key punching will be necessary in those schools where students have not had this experience.

Instructional Aids. There are several aids available to supplement and enrich instruction. The overhead projector is a must. Facilities for the preparation of transparency foils is also necessary. Ample chalkboard space is essential and magnetized chalkboards are recommended so that magnetized flow charting symbols can be used in the teaching of flow charting.

It is recommended that computer programming supplies, such as flow charting paper and template, coding forms, and printer spacing charts be used.

A number of films are available, most of which have been developed by computer manufacturers. These may be used effectively, particularly in the earlier part of the course.

SELECTED REFERENCES

COBOL Reference Manuals, C24-3433 and C24-5025. IBM Corporation.

Davis, Gordon. *Computer Data Processing.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1969.

Emerick, Paul, and Joseph Wilkinson. *Computer Programming for Business and Social Science.* Richard Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Illinois, 1970.

Feingold, Carl. *Fundamentals of COBOL Programming.* Wm. C. Brown Company, Dubuque, Iowa, 1969.

Wendel, Thomas, and William H. Williams. *Introduction to Data Processing and COBOL.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1969.

UNIT RECORD EQUIPMENT

Description. The unit record equipment course is designed to provide skill development on the following equipment: key punch, verifier, reproducer, interpreter, sorter, collator, and accounting machine. Students should be given an opportunity to use equipment in a hands-on application of data processing problems.

Objectives. Given an opportunity to participate in teacher-designed activities, by the end of the unit record equipment course, a student should be able:

1. To list two duties and two employment requirements of a key punch operator.
2. To identify two sources of information for punch cards.
3. To list two things that would normally be done with punched cards after punching.
4. To list four different types of punched cards and reasons for each type.
5. To identify any specific column, edge, face or zone of a punched card.
6. To read any number, letter, or special character punched into a punched card.
7. To design card fields to accommodate numbers of varying lengths.
8. To load a card hopper and identify five stations which a card passes in the machine.
9. To punch any number, letter, or function control key dictated at a given rate.
10. To install correctly a program drum card.
11. To caution someone about the necessity to install a program drum card with the star-wheels in the down position.

12. To punch a program drum card which will shift, skip, or duplicate at any given column.

13. To list two duties and two employment requirements of a verifier operator.

14. To identify the machines that manipulate a punched card before and after verification.

15. To check a batch of 25 cards against the source documents and identify all errors within a given time period.

16. To tell how batch totals are obtained and list the sources of the totals.

17. To tell how hash totals are obtained and list three reasons that might account for any discrepancies.

18. To discriminate among non-verified cards, verified cards, and error cards.

19. To list two duties and two employment requirements of a reproducer operator.

20. To name the machines that would normally process a punched card before and after reproduction.

21. To draw a diagram of a reproducer and label the following parts: reproducing brushes, comparing brushes, control panel, punch dies, reading unit, and punching unit.

22. To sketch, illustrate, or describe 80-80 duplication as opposed to another method.

23. To sketch, illustrate, or describe the punching unit of a reproducer set up for gang punching.

24. To discriminate between key punched printed cards and reproduced end printed cards.

25. To identify a mark sense card and sketch, illustrate, or describe how a reproducer can convert the information into a standard card.

26. To list two duties and employment requirements of an interpreter operator.

27. To identify the machines that would process a punched card before and after the interpreter.

28. To manually interpret a punched card similar to the way an interpreter would.

29. To select any specified columns to be interpreted.

30. To list two duties and two employment requirements of a sorter operator.

31. To identify the machines that would process a punched card before and after the sorter.

32. To group a deck of cards according to a specified characteristic.

33. To sort cards in sequence according to a specified digit.

34. To sort cards in alphabetic sequence according to a specific field name.

35. To compute the number of runs necessary to sort a specified numeric and alphabetic sequence.

36. To list two duties and two employment requirements of a collator operator.

37. To name the machines that would normally process a punched card before and after the collator.

38. To describe, illustrate, or sketch how a collator may merge two cards that a sorter could not.

39. To point to the primary and secondary feed units of a collator.

40. To describe, illustrate, or sketch the path a given sequence of numbered cards would take in the collator while merging under the following conditions: low primary, low secondary, and equal.

41. To describe, illustrate, or sketch the path a given sequence of numbered cards would take in the collator during the matching function, including cards in matched and unmatched primary and secondary.

42. To describe, illustrate, or sketch the path that a given sequence of numbered cards would take in the collator during the match-merge function.

43. To describe, illustrate, or sketch the path that cards would take in the collator during the selecting function.

44. To describe, illustrate, or sketch the path that a given sequence of numbered cards would take in the collator during sequence checking function.

45. To list two duties and two employment requirements of an accounting machine operator.

46. To name the processes that would normally be applied to the data before and after being manipulated by the accounting machine.

47. To describe, illustrate, or sketch the first and second reading stations of the accounting machine and indentify the function of each station.

48. To identify major, intermediate, and minor totals of an accounting machine printout.

49. To describe, illustrate, or sketch serial and parallel printers.

50. To identify detail and group printed reports and give a reason for each report.

51. To identify a control tape and list four of its functions.

52. To point to the head and body of a form.

53. To list the machines involved in summary punching.

54. To name one way that detailed reports-detailed cards are similar to summary reports-summary cards.

55. To define the following terms: keypunch, card stacker, program control unit, punching station, reading station, verifier, batch totals, hash totals, detail file, gang punching, mark sensing, reproducer, single master-card gang punching, block sorting, grouping, selecting, sorting in sequence, editing, low primary, low secondary, high sequence, equal sequence, low sequence, channel, control tape, detail printing, group printing, parallel printing, printing, serial printing, summarizing, summary punching, and tabulator

Grade Placement. Unit Record Equipment should be offered in Grade 11. This course may be preceded by the introduction to data processing course. It may be extended to one year for an in-depth study of the various machines.

Content

I. The Key Punch

   A. Job Description and Requirements

   B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart

   C. The Punched Card (types, columns, edges, faces, and zones, Hollerith code, card fields)

D. The Card Path (the hopper, feeding, punching, reading, stacking)

E. The Keyboard

F. The Program Unit (pressure roll release, starwheels, program drum)

G. The Program Card (shifting, skipping, duplicating)

H. Terminology (key punch, card stacker, program control unit, punching station, reading station)

II. THE VERIFIER

A. Job Description and Requirements

B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart

C. Verifying Procedures and Practices

1. Visual verification (listing, printing, proofreading)
2. Batch total and hash totals
3. Verifier features and functions (verifying station, keyboard, error light, card notcher)

D. Terminology (verifier, batch totals, hash totals)

III. THE REPRODUCER

A. Job Description and Requirements

B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart

C. Components (reading unit, punching unit)

D. Functions
1. Duplicating cards—80-80 method
2. Duplicating certain columns—offset punching
3. Comparing function
4. Gang punching
5. End printing
6. Mark sense conversion

E. Terminology (detail file, gang punching, mark sensing, reproducer, single master card gang punching)

IV. THE INTERPRETER

A. Job Description and Requirements

B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart

C. Interpreting

- D. The Selector
- E. Interpreting with Selection

V. THE SORTER

- A. Job Description and Requirements
- B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart
- C. Numeric Sorting
- D. Alphabetic Sorting
- E. Computing the Number of Runs
- F. Terminology (block sorting, grouping, selecting, sorting in sequence)

VI. THE COLLATOR

- A. Job Description and Requirements
- B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart
- C. Merging
- D. Matching
- E. Match-Merging
- F. Sequence Checking
- G. Selecting
- H. Terminology (editing, low primary, low secondary, high sequence, equal sequence, low sequence)

VII. THE ACCOUNTING MACHINE

- A. Job Description and Requirements
- B. Place in a Unit Record System Flow Chart
- C. Card Reading
- D. Summarizing (major, intermediate, and minor totals)
- E. Printing (serial, parallel, detail, group)
- F. Controlling, Spacing, and Positioning
- G. Form Spacing
- H. The Control Tape
- I. Summary Punching

J. Terminology (channel, control tape, detail printing, group printing, parallel printing, printing, serial printing, summarizing, summary punching, tabulator)

Instructional Methods and Techniques. (See "Introduction to Data Processing")

Instructional Aids

1. IBM, *An Introduction to IBM Puched Card Data Processing,* IBM Corporation, Data Processing Division, 112 East Post Road, White Plains, New York 10601.
2. Overhead transparencies: *Accounting 10/12,* Part IV, available through McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York.
3. Instructional Manual, *Future Data Processors,* published in 1962 by Data Processing Management Association and available through that association, Park Ridge, Illinois.
4. Films: *Automation.* A 16mm, 30-minute, sound, black and white film from the "See It Now" TV Series. Edward R. Murrow narrates the main problems concerning the development of automation. Available through the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. A 1958 film.

   Careers in Business Data Processing. A 16mm, 30-minute sound motion picture on 2-½ reels. Free rental from Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Company, Chicago, Illinois.
5. Filmstrips: *Automation in Today's Modern Office.* A 20-minute, 35mm, color filmstrip, available through Friden, Inc. *Basic Punched Card Series.* Teaching filmstrips developed from IBM's programmed instruction course, "Punched Card Data Processing Principles." A series of seven lessons, available through Audiovision, Inc., 33 Mercer Avenue, Buffalo, N.Y.

   Control Input for ADP. A 27-minute, sound, color filmstrip, available through Burroughs Corporation.
   Installation of Unit Record Equipment. A 35mm, sound, color filmstrip, No. V-30-3037, available through IBM.

   IBM 24/26 Card Punch Operation. Nine sets of filmstrips with synchronized sound-on-tape. Lessons cover instructions on various aspects of operating the machines.

   The Magic Window. A sound and color filmstrip available through IBM.

UNA and the UNIVAC. A 16-minute, 35mm, sound, color filmstrip. A basic interpretation of data processing from punched cards through the "Babbage Analytical Engine" to today's computers, showing how a computer handles a routine inventory problem, thereby freeing clerical workers. A 1960 filmstrip, available through Univac Division of Sperry Rand Corporation.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Awad, Elias M. *Automatic Data Processing.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1970.

Davis, Gordon B. *Computer Data Processing.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1969.

Feingold, Carl. *Fundamentals of Punched Card Data Processing.* Wm. C. Brown Publishers, Dubuque, Iowa, 1969.

Science Research Associates. *Principles of Data Processing.* Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, 1970.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Electronic Business Data Processing Peripheral Equipment Occupations.* Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1964.

CLERICAL CAREER OBJECTIVE

Writers

Miss Ada Immel, Chairman
Formerly of Niles Township High School East
Skokie

Miss Jeanne Dahl
Glenbrook North High School
Northbrook

Mr. C. Lee Dohleman
Illinois State University
Normal

Mr. Bernard Ohm
Division of Vocational and Technical Education
Springfield

Miss Judy Onken
Evanston High School
Evanston

Mr. Charles Plock
Niles Township High School East
Skokie

Mrs. Annabel Sortal
Maine Township High School West
Des Plaines

CLERICAL CAREER OBJECTIVE

The prediction of a decade ago that automation would reduce the clerical staff and clerical costs of the business office has not materialized. On the contrary, automated equipment has increased the need for clerical workers who perform tasks necessary to give management more complete and accurate data for fast decision making.

The technological advances of the last quarter of the century will continue to accelerate. These advances will necessitate an ever-increasing amount of equipment with consequent modification of levels in office occupations. The new office equipment will call for more education and training—clerical training.

A clerical training program should consist of an integration of selected office education courses and activities designed to equip a student with marketable technical skills, human relations skills, business knowledges, and professional attitudes so that he can successfully adapt himself to the specific tasks of automated office work now and in the future. *A Taxonomy of Office Activities for Business and Office Education* is an invaluable aid to the teacher in developing course content.[1]

Philosophy

The expected 25 per cent increase in clerical positions in the 1970's will provide abundant career opportunities for those students who upgrade their skills in this field.

The clerical program should consist of a cluster of courses which will:

1. Provide opportunities for a student to gain an understanding of the nature of office work and the kinds of skills which lead to initial employment.
2. Focus on topics that will be useful to all students.
3. Provide the required skills, knowledge, and attitudes which will enable the student to obtain upon graduation a job suitable to his interests and abilities.
4. Develop an awareness and understanding of the partnership of man and machines in solving office problems.
5. Provide the student with personal understandings of, and compassions for his fellow man.

Objectives

A student in the Clerical Training Program should be able:

1. To see the function of business in our society and the requirements for successfully serving this function.

---

[1] Harry Hoffman and others. *A Taxonomy of Office Activities for Business and Office Education*, July, 1968. Available from ERIC Document Reproduction Services, EDRS, P.O. Drawer O Bethesda, Maryland, 20014. ED-021-140-MF. Paperback 65c, Hardbound $8.30.

2. To practice work habits and work attitudes that are necessary for a successful office career.
3. To show evidence of having attained the knowledges and attitudes required for successful adjustment to the changing occupations in the office.
4. To select an office career goal that is realistic and make a plan for achieving this goal.
5. To process data by common office procedures and routines at an employable level of competence.
6. To hear, speak, read, and write the directions and information communicated in office work so that he can understand and take action at an employable level of competence.
7. To type common production problems at a rate and quality required for employment in a specific career choice.
8. To compute common business problems at an employable level of competence.
9. To operate common office machines at a rate, accuracy, and quality required for employment in a specific career choice.

Occupations Available

Many specific job titles in the clerical field can be obtained from Bulletin No. 5-370, published by the Board of Vocational and Technical Education of the State of Illinois. The title of the booklet is Descriptions, Definitions and Occupational Coding System. The general job titles for clerical employees are:

1. Clerk-typist
2. Data Entry Operator
3. Machine Operator
4. Receptionist
5. General Office Clerk
6. Switchboard Operator
7. Accounting Clerk
8. Filing Clerk
9. Mailroom Clerk

Subjects

Students who wish to prepare for a clerical career should consider one of the following sequences—Information Processing or Data Handling. The Information Processing sequence will lead to careers requiring good typing ability. The Data Handling sequence will lead to careers requiring mathematical capabilities and machine operation.

Students with special needs might begin the sequence in an earlier grade if advised to do so.

Information Processing Career Goal

Grade 12	Office Machines	2 semesters
	Clerical Office Procedure	2 semesters
Grade 11	Typing Second Year	2 semesters
	Business Communications	2 semesters
Grade 9 or 10	Typing First Year	2 semesters
	Business I	2 semesters
Vocational electives:	Accounting	
	Business Law	
	Business Mathematics	
	Data Processing	

Data Handling Career Goal

Grade 11 or 12	Office Machines	2 semesters
	Clerical Office Procedure	2 semesters
Grade	Data Processing	2 semesters
	Business Mathematics	2 semesters
Grade 9 or 10	Typing First Year	2 semesters
	Business	2 semesters
Vocational electives:	Accounting	
	Business Communications	
	Business Law	
	Typing Second Year	

SELECTED REFERENCES

Bober, Gerald F. "Chicago's Clerical Office Procedures Program." *Business Education World*, (November-December, 1970), pp. 2-3.

Hoffman, Harry, and others. *A Taxomony of Office Activities for Business and Office Education*, July 1968.

Stewart, Jeffrey R., Jr., Editor. *The Office Practice Program in Business Education*, New York: The Eastern Business Teachers Association, Volume XLIII, 1970.

Travis, Dorothy L., and Lorraine Missling, Editors, *Selected Readings in Business and Office Occupations*, (Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, 1967), p. 341.

Witherow, Mary. "An Up-To-Date Secondary Clerical Program," *Business Education Forum*, (February, 1971), pp. 17-18.

Descriptions, Definitions and Occupational Coding System, Board of Vocational and Technical Education, State of Illinois, Bulletin 5-370.

CLERICAL OFFICE PROCEDURES

Description. In this course, the student will be introduced to the many techniques, skills, routines, and procedures which are relevant to or identified with general office work. It is a one-year course designed to utilize typewriters and as many other office machines as are available.

Grade Placement. This course should be offered in Grade 12, or the year immediately preceding employment.

Objectives. Upon completion of the course in clerical office practice, the student should be able to demonstrate an ability:

(1) To perform the tasks concomitant to records management and control

(2) To select a duplication procedure appropriate to a job assignment, to prepare the master copy, to duplicate the materials, to collate the papers and to put the working station and supplies in order.

(3) To calculate and verify business computations on a machine best suited to the application.

(4) To arrange, type, proofread, and correct selected jobs representative of office communications.

(5) To transcribe, proofread, and correct material from voice-transcription machines.

(6) To delineate the work flow of an office and to describe the responsibilities and duties of clerical positions.

(7) To apply the principles underlying effective written business communications by composing, editing, and typing examples of typical business problems.

(8) To apply the principles of effective oral communication by researching, preparing, and delivering a short report on a selected business-related topic.

(9) To utilize reference sources in solving a typical business problem and presenting a procedural solution.

(10) To apply an understanding of desirable human relations attitudes by responding positively to given critical incidents.

(11) To express an understanding of employment procedures by preparing a job description of his selected occupation, summarizing the opportunities in the field, prepar-

ing and typing a personal data sheet and letter of application, and role-playing in interview situations.

(12) To demonstrate in the performance of the above-listed activities that he has developed desirable work habits and attitudes.

Course Content

I. RECORDS MANAGEMENT

A. Filing and Finding
  1. Alphabetic
  2. Geographic
  3. Subject
  4. Numeric

B. Organization and Procedures
  1. Processing papers
    a. Time stamp, release marks
    b. Inspecting, indexing, coding
    c. Cross referencing
    d. Sorting, filing
    e. Retrieval

C. Filing Control
  1. Organization of files
  2. Requisition, charge, follow-up

D. Transfer, Storage, Retention

E. Establishing and Maintaining a Filing System

F. Systems, Equipment, and Supplies

G. Data Processing, Microfilm, Microfiche

II. DUPLICATING

A. Duplication Processes
  1. Carbons
  2. Liquid
  3. Stencil
  4. Offset

B. Preparation of Dummy Copy, Masters

C. Duplication of Copies

D. Collation

III. ADDING AND CALCULATING MACHINES

A. Inventory Review of Computative Processes

    1. Basic mathematical processes
    2. Types of machines
        a. Adding-listing
        b. Calculators
            (1) rotary
            (2) printing
            (3) electronic
            (4) Key-driven

- B. Business Applications

IV. Typewriting Skills

- A. Skill Maintenance
    1. Speed and accuracy drills
    2. Statistical typing
    3. Production typing

- B. Special Typewriters

V. TRANSCRIPTION WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS

- A. Inventory and Review of English Skills

- B. Business Applications
    1. Use of reference sources
    2. Composition, editing, analysis of business letters, reports, etc.

- C. Voice-Transcription

VI. ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

- A. Telephone Techniques

- B. Oral Instructions

- C. Speeches, Reports

VII. OFFICE ORGANIZATION

- A. Organization Charts

- B. Staff
    1. Job descriptions
    2. Duties and responsibilities
    3. Human relations

- C. Equipment and Supplies
    1. Selection
    2. Maintenance
    3. Cost Control

VIII. Employment Procedures
    A. Job Analysis
    B. Personal Data Sheets
    C. Letters of Application
    D. Interviews
    E. Job Retention Factors

Instructional Methods and Techniques. The most desirable methods for teaching the clerical office practice course are skill development projects and student participation activities. The lecture method should be employed only when other methods are not feasible or the information is not available through other media.

Committees. The committee plan for investigating and presenting information has been used successfully by many teachers. However, this plan requires readily available resources and teacher initiative to organize and guide the students through the steps of learning. Most teachers who use this method have resource books and magazines in the classroom and provide class time for the information research. These teachers also utilize the resources of the cooperative local businesses who have pertinent examples of the areas being studied. Good organization is vital to the success of this method.

Projects. Skill development projects should be scheduled around the class periods used for committee work by students. An intensive review of previously-acquired skills will facilitate the integration of these skills with those currently being developed.

Practice Sets. A number of excellent commercially prepared practice sets are available for clerical, typewriting, filing, data processing, transcription, recordkeeping, and payroll procedures. These sets should be used as teaching devices rather than testing devices. Supplementary instruction sheets may be prepared by the teacher calling attention to special problem areas and emphasizing specific learning areas. The sets may be completed on an individual progression basis if the students have had previous experience with this method; some of the more difficult jobs may be selected for battery presentation; two or three students may be assigned to complete one practice set on a cooperative basis. When the latter technique is used, care must be exercised to assign to the groups students of varying levels of ability.

Instructional Aids. The efforts of the teacher in clerical office practice can be enhanced by a number of instructional techniques and aids when they are utilized with discretion.

1. Field Trips. Well-planned field trips provide an excellent opportunity for students to observe modern offices with up-to-date equipment. A discussion prior to the trip should cover its objectives and general plan. The trip should be followed by evaluation by means of reports and class discussions.
2. Demonstrations. Most equipment manufacturers will provide trained personnel to demonstrate their newest and most sophisticated equipment, and will frequently leave such equipment on a limited tryout basis. This enables the students to view equipment that would not otherwise be available to them.
3. Dramatization and Role Playing. Classroom activities may be made more effective by use of committees in the preparation and presentation of short skits to emphasize such key points as conducting an interview, greeting callers, and telephone techniques. The telephone company makes available equipment and materials for the latter purpose.
4. Notebooks. Students can be assigned to keep a collection of actual business letters, news items concerning business trends and procedures, and other current business oriented data culled from newspapers, magazines, trade papers, and other publications. This helps to relate the work of the classroom to the business world.
5. Films and Filmstrips. Commercially prepared materials demonstrating office procedures are available in abundance. Many of these are available free of charge or for a small rental fee; others may be purchased for the business education library for use in all business classes.
6. Show and Tell. This type of activity can be presented by students in the class, students from other classes, or by teachers. The topic should be related to class activity to highlight points that the teacher wishes to emphasize.
7. Guest Speakers. Businessmen and women, graduates, public officials, and civic club representatives are usually willing to speak to students on a variety of subjects. A card file of resource persons should be kept for use by all teachers in the business department.

8. Bulletin Boards. Preparation of bulletin boards, posters, and display cases can be very effective means for a student or a committee to show new equipment, office routines, business ethics, and other related topics. Such assignments should be made on an extra-credit, out-of-class basis.

9. Overhead Projectors. Every classroom teacher should have ready access to an overhead projector. The ease of making transparencies enables teachers to reinforce any class lecture or point of discussion with related charts, diagrams, and outlines. Many excellent commercially prepared transparencies are available covering a wide variety of business practices.

10. Controlled Readers. Certain skills can be developed and maintained through the use of materials prepared for the controlled readers. These can be utilized either as a class or individual project.

11. Tape Recorders and Cassettes. These machines facilitate evaluation of lectures, class discussions, and role playing situations. They are valuable in improvement of voice, diction, articulation, and in the correction of speech habits.

12. Reports. There are many books and magazines covering a variety of business topics which are beneficial in extending the student's sphere of knowledge. Reports, oral or written, on topics assigned by the teacher or selected by the student provide an opportunity to improve communicative skills.

13. Panel Discussions. A panel of four or five members of the class can be most effective in presenting a topic. It will be necessary to instruct the students in methods of research and techniques of panel discussions for optimum effectiveness.

14. Group Projects. Small groups may be assigned to develop a handbook, plan a field trip, prepare a news release, or participate in some other type of activity that contributes to the welfare of the group and presents an opportunity for individual development.

15. Videotaping. If equipment is available, this is an excellent means for a class to evaluate an activity. Portable video recorders are useful for bringing examples of business procedures from the community into the classroom.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Barger, Virginia. "Simulation Provides Better Preparation for Office Employees," *Business Education Forum*. (February, 1970), pp. 14-15.

Cress, Elizabeth. "Developing Guidelines for Integrated Office Procedures," *Business Education Forum*, (March, 1971), pp. 26-27.

Forte, John. "A Model Office on a Shoe-string," *The Balance Sheet*. (November, 1969), pp. 115-117.

McQuire, *Carol L.* "Committee Approach to an Office-Training Project," *Business Education Forum*, (December, 1967), pp. 19-20.

Place, Irene. "The Changing Nature of Office Work," *The Emerging Content and Structure of Business Education*, (Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, 1970, pp. 40-48.

OFFICE MACHINES

Description. This course should give students a comprehensive knowledge about all types of office machines that are available for processing business data and an opportunity to learn the operation of the machines most commonly used. The students will have the experience of applying knowledge and using machines to solve handling business problems in a simulated office during a one-year course.

Objectives. An office machines course should be geared to a wide range of student interest and ability. Individual objectives should be selected for each student according to his career goal. The ability to learn the operation of a specialized machine quickly on the job may be more important than mastery of all machines in the classroom. For the purpose of selecting individualized objectives, the course can provide an opportunity for the student:

1. To type business letters, manuscripts, and tabulated documents on a proportional spacing typewriter at the rate of 35 words per minute and at a quality considered mailable.

2. To arrange rough copy documents into an organized and understandable format in preparation for typing within a reasonable time.

3. To duplicate good quality copies by running stencils and masters on duplicators, and to provide the routine machine operation care described in the machine manual.

4. To compute 20 multiplication and division problems within 20 minutes with an accuracy of 90 per cent by using an electronic calculator and a printing calculator.

5. To identify all incorrect calculation results in 20 multiplication and division problems within 20 minutes by using an electronic calculator and printing calculator.

6. To compute the extensions, gross amount, tax discount, and net amount for a twenty-item invoice in 20 minutes with an accuracy of 90 per cent by using an electronic calculator and printing calculator.

7. To identify all incorrect calculations in an invoice containing 20 items, a tax, a discount, and a net amount within 20 minutes.

8. To compute addition problems containing five numbers of two to four digits each by using the ten-key adding machine at the rate of 100 digits per minute, in a 5-minute time period.

9. To transcribe in mailable form letters of common business vocabulary from machine dictation at the rate of 30 words per minute for 15 minutes.

10. To record alphanumeric information from source documents by using a key punch machine or keytape machine at the rate of 150 strokes per minutes for a 5-minute time period.

11. To adjust and operate special typewriters (automatics, variable type, right justifying, long carriage) for producing copy at the minimum employment rate and accuracy by touch operation of the keyboard.

12. To compose, type, calculate, duplicate, verify, file, retrieve, and perform other data handling activities for performing all tasks (at a speed and accuracy consistent with local job entry requirements) in a simulated office situation by using whatever equipment is available to the individual.

13. To identify the machine types that could be used for handling forms, copying, sorting, transcribing, calculating, duplicating, filing, retrieving, handling mail, communicating, and typing. The student should be able to state two major advantages and disadvantages that would have to be considered for installing each machine in an office system.

14. To illustrate good machine dictating techniques by dictating a letter using these techniques.

15. To flow chart a payroll system, an invoice system, and a purchasing system, and to identify the machine operations that could be used in each system.

16. To list and give an example of all office functions that can be served by a computer system.

17. To type, write, and draw on masters and stencils for producing a quality copy.

18. To change ribbons and perform other simple operating maintenance tasks.

Grade Placement. The office machines course should be a one-year course offered at Grade 12. Usually the desired competencies can be acquired in a combination of class and laboratory time totaling 275 minutes per week. Time schedules may need to be adjusted for individual students.

A trend in vocational office education is to integrate the office machines, the clerical office practice, and advanced typing courses into one integrated office laboratory course. This course should be one year in length with a weekly time allotment of 550 minutes, or until students have individually reached the stated objective of the course. Such students might be given the opportunity for practical work experience within the school.

Content. The course content in the office machines course should be based on a survey of local business equipment and practices. Equally important is consideration of nation-wide research findings. The machines commonly available for teaching the course are:

- Typewriters
  - Electric and manual
  - Right margin justifying machines
  - Proportional spacing machines
  - Variable type font machines
  - Automatic typing machines
- Computing machines
  - 10-key adding-listing machines
  - 10-key printing calculators
  - Electronic calculators
  - Full-keyboard adding-listing
  - Rotary calculators
- Dictation machines
  - Tape
  - Belt
  - Disc

Data encoding machines
    Key punch
    Keytape machine

Duplicators
    Stencil
    Liquid
    Offset
    Copying

Miscellaneous machines and devices
    Files
    Sorters
    Timers and stampers
    Collators
    Telephones
    Paper cutters and staplers

The content of the course should be more than machine operation. It should give the student a comprehensive knowledge of the machines that could be found in any business and the office function each machine would serve. The student should be able to select the machine best suited to the solution of a particular problem. For this type of office machines course, the content should be:

I. Office Functions and the Processing of Business Data

    A. Copying

    B. Classifying

    C. Sorting

    D. Calculating

    E. Accumulating

    F. Verifying

    G. Communicating

    H. Filing

    I. Retrieving

    J. General Handling

II. Machine Operating Techniques for the Common Office Machines

III. The Panorama of Machines for Serving Office Functions

    A. Computing Machines

1. Calculators
2. Adding machines
3. Bookkeeping machines

B. Dictating Machines
   1. Tape
   2. Belt
   3. Disc

C. Communicating Machines
   1. Telephones
   2. Teletypewriters
   3. Radio and TV
   4. Facsimile printers
   5. Inter-coms
   6. Mechanical belts and tubes
   7. Special typewriters

D. Duplicating Machines
   1. Liquid
   2. Stencil
   3. Offset

E. Copy Machines
   1. Thermal process
   2. Electrostatic process
   3. Dual spectrum process

F. Mailroom Machines
   1. Addressing machines
   2. Collating machines
   3. Folding machines
   4. Inserting and sealing machines
   5. Postage meters
   6. Sorters
   7. Openers

G. Filing and Retrieving Machines
   1. Microfilm
   2. Video

H. Forms Handling Machines
   1. Imprinters
   2. Detachers
   3. Deleavers
   4. Slitters and strippers
   5. Collators

I. Computer Peripheral Machines
   1. Terminals

2. Encoding machines
3. Visual display consoles
4. OCR and MICR readers

IV. THE APPLICATION OF MACHINE OPERATION TO PERFORMING TASKS IN SIMULATED BUSINESS SYSTEMS

An office machines classroom should have ample space for each student to work and the equipment should be arranged in an office-like manner. The teacher will need to visit offices, read advertising literature, talk to salesmen, and see films to gain the knowledge necessary for discussing the many machines used in business today.

Instructional Methods and Techniques. Office machines teachers need to be creative. It would be safe to say that there would not be two office machines classrooms that would be equipped in exactly the same way. Therefore, each teacher must organize the office machines program to best suit the needs of the local business community, the needs of the students, and the equipment available.

A variety of techniques are available to the office machines instructor. Some of the most widely used are listed below:

Battery Plan. This plan is used for teaching units that do not require hands-on experience and for teaching machines that are available in sufficient numbers for the plan. General information units, business mathematics fundamentals, selection and maintenance of equipment and supplies are types of units that lend themselves to the battery plan.

Rotation Plan. The rotation plan is the organization of instructional units into a planned sequence with all units being presented simultaneously. It requires a thorough and detailed set of self-instruction sheets and a master schedule of rotation. This schedule takes into account (1) the number of students in the class, (2) the number of stations available, and (3) the maximum time that should be allotted to each unit. The master schedule is used to sequence students from one unit to another. Specific directions for making a master may be found in the sources cited in "Selected References."

Time periods allotted in the rotation plan should not be so inflexible as to preclude the individual progression of the students. The creative teacher can increase the number of learning stations by developing units that do not require machines; for example, if space permits a model office within the classroom or assignment of students to an on-the-job station in a school office.

In addition to the master schedule, job instruction sheets refining the work of each unit are essential for the smooth-running operation of a rotation plan. These sheets identify the machine or unit, the textbook or manual of instruction to be used, the specific job assignments, and special instructions.

Integrated Office Laboratory. The integrated office laboratory technique is being used by some schools when the clerical office practice and the office machines classes are taught as one course. With this method, emphasis is on individual instruction related to the occupational objectives of the students. The skills and knowledge necessary for performing specific tasks are integrated into project problems that are common to the selected occupation.

Simulated Office Laboratory. Another organizational plan being used for integrating the previously acquired basic office skills and knowledge is the simulated office. The class may be organized into several positions for simulating the operation of one company or into fewer positions and simulating several companies who will interact. The one-company plan requires the teacher to have most forms and activities planned in advance of operation. The multiple-company plan can be organized by using the students, ideas and assistance. The teacher can develop the type of businesses to have for common business interaction situations such as a bank, a printing office, a retailer, a wholesaler, etc. Through class discussion, the teacher can establish the positions, beginning job descriptions, forms, and potential interaction situations. The students will write the job descriptions, design necessary forms, and duplicate the supplies needed before starting operation. The teacher acts as a resource person and a stimulator for interaction among the businesses.

The simulated office plan should be the concluding phase of the office machines course. The multiple-company plan provides the students with the most freedom and challenges their understanding of the whole office operation. When direct work experience is not available, the teacher must provide the experiences that most nearly approximate this experience.

Regardless of the organization used for the office machines course, the teacher must be sure students can visualize the operation of many machines through demonstrations, films, and visits to business offices. Representatives from office equipment manufacturers are usually eager to demonstrate new or unusual machines and will frequently leave the machines in the classroom for trial use.

Instructional Aids. Any of the instructional aids listed as the course clerical office practice could be used in office machines. The most used would be television, tape recorders, advertising literature, and office magazines.

Television is an effective method for demonstrating a machine as it permits every student to see the manipulative operation. The new portable videotape recorders are especially useful for showing machines used in local businesses.

Tape recorders can be used for giving individualized instruction on a machine. Some instructors have used dictation on a tape recorder for a pre-transcribing unit when the number of transcribing machines are limited.

Advertising literature is an excellent means of visualizing many machines not found in the classroom. It can be used for comparing the features of many different makes of the same machine.

Periodicals should be available to students in the machines classroom. They will broaden the perspective of the course content and acquaint students with current trends. A few good magazines are: *Administrative Management*, *Information and Records Management*, *Modern Office Procedures*, and *The Office*.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Barger, Virginia. "Office Simulation, an Effective Technique." *The Balance Sheet*, (February, 1970), pp. 259-261.

Kallaus, Norman F. "Hardware: A New Man-Machine Interface," *"Criteria for Evaluating Business and Office Education," Seventh Yearbook of the National Business Education Association* (Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association, 1969), pp. 277-293.

Karsner, Jean C. "Successful Simulation Teaches Office Practice," *Business Education Forum*, (April, 1969), pp. 23-25.

Kitchenstein, Dolores. "Planning a Rotation Unit," *Business Education Forum*, (February, 1968), pp. 11-14.

Page, Charles W. and Dorothy Lee. "The Teaching of Office Machines," *Contributions of Research to Business Education*, (Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association, 1971), pp. 56-58.

BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS

Description. This course is designed to develop effective oral and written communication for business and everyday life. It may be either a one-semester or a two-semester course.

Objectives. The business communications course should be a continuation of the student's previous experience in his sequence of English courses and will help him:

1. To describe examples illustrating the importance of effective communication in business and social life.

2. To communicate business information and instructions accurately by oral and written methods.
3. To use the rules of grammar, punctuation, sentence structure, spelling, and correct format to produce various types of communications when time is allotted for proofreading and revision.
4. To identify all incorrect grammar, spelling, and punctuation in letters of common business vocabulary.
5. To perform various business activities when given a set of oral instructions to follow.
6. To perform various business activities when given a set of written instructions to follow.
7. To write different types of business letter communications as mailable examples of each and indicate the purpose of each paragraph.
8. To determine all correct paragraphing when given common business letters with no paragraphing.
9. To write business reports and minutes of meetings that clearly present the facts as given through handwritten notes and other documents or as presented in a simulated meeting.
10. To improve business vocabulary, word power, and word choice in speaking and writing.
11. To write with penmanship that can be easily read and correctly interpreted.
12. To give a formal talk using personal appearance communication by gestures, facial expressions, voice, diction, and tone to improve communications.
13. To correct the expression of all number when given a manuscript that contains numbers requiring different ways of expression.
14. To read business information rapidly and with comprehension by using correct reading techniques.
15. To identify and use common reference books found in the business office when given situations requiring the use of references.
16. To dictate letters using the correct techniques for dictation.

Grade Placement. This course should be taught at the eleventh or twelfth grade level.

Content

I. FORMS OF COMMUNICATION
   - A. Appearance
   - B. Gesturing
   - C. Listening
   - D. Observing
   - E. Reading
   - F. Speaking
   - G. Writing

II. GRAMMAR
   - A. Part of Speech—Use of Each
   - B. Sentence Patterns
   - C. Sentence Structure

III. PUNCTUATION
   - A. Marks of Punctuation — Use of Each
   - B. Development of Complete Message
   - C. Expression of Numbers

IV. EFFECTIVE WRITING
   - A. Paragraph Structure and Development
   - B. Development of Complete Message
   - C. Parts of Letter
   - D. Word Power
   - E. Word Choice
   - F. Vocabulary Expansion

V. BUSINESS LETTERS
   - A. Letters of Purpose
     1. Human interest
     2. Sales
   - B. Letter Construction
     1. Purpose of intent of letter
     2. 5 C's
        a. clearness
        b. completeness

- c. conciseness
- d. correctness
- e. courtesy

VI. BUSINESS FORMS

- A. Minutes of Meetings
- B. Memorandums
- C. Orders, Invoices, etc.
- D. Remittances
- E. Reports—Formal and Informal
- F. Telegrams

VII. ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

- A. Conferences
- B. Interviews
- C. Reception
- D. Telephone Techniques
- E. Sales Presentations

VIII. READING A FORM OF COMMUNICATION

- A. Reading Power
  - 1. Comprehension
  - 2. Speed
- B. Business Literature
  - 1. Trade journals
  - 2. Daily papers
  - 3. Magazines of business conditions and trends

IX. PENMANSHIP

- A. Legibility—Ease of Reading and Writing
- B. Legibility—Correct Interpretation

X. USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND MATERIALS

- A. Almanacs
- B. Books of Quotations
- C. Books of Synonyms
- D. Dictionaries
- E. Parliamentary Procedures

F. Secretarial Handbooks

G. Style Manuals

H. Thesaurus

Instructional Methods and Techniques. Methods, techniques, and procedures for teaching business communications are many and varied. After the ability of the students has been determined, measures then can be taken to decide on the proper stimulus for learning and the method for achieving each objective.

The following is a suggested plan which could be used with variety—limited only by imagination and effectiveness.

I. State Objectives

II. Pre-test

III. Select Methods

- A. Lecture (limited)
- B. Question and Answer
- C. End of Chapter Aids
- D. Special Projects
  1. Library usage
  2. Community resources
  3. Questionnaires
  4. Collections of forms, business letters, etc.
  5. Simulation

IV. Evaluate

V. Reteach

Good teaching is the result of good planning. A suggested plan for teaching the sales letter follows:

I. MAJOR OBJECTIVES

- A. To write mailable sales letters that sell a product, a service, a point of view.
- B. To write mailable sales letters that sell to different types of people.

II. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

- A. To state the purpose of a sales letter in one paragraph to be written in ten minutes.

B. To list five characteristics of a letter that make a letter sell.

C. To list five characteristics of people that would cause a sales letter to be written differently.

D. To list ten positive words or phrases to use in a good sales letter.

E. To list ten negative words or phrases to avoid in a good sales letter.

F. To write, within forty minutes, a mailable sales letter that could achieve positive results given the requested specifics of a sales situation.

III. MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

A. Textbook

B. Overhead Projector and Opaque Projector

C. Transparencies of Actual Sales Letter

D. Sales Letter Collection

E. Chalkboard and Chalk

IV. TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Emphasize that every business letter is a sales letter.
   1. Have students try to find a letter that is not a sales letter.
   2. Point out that some letters are geared directly to creating a sale; others may do so indirectly.

B. Discuss which is more difficult to write and why.
   1. Letters selling goods
   2. Letters selling ideas

C. Go over steps in planning a letter — use textbook, chalkboard, or overhead.
   1. Determine the aim of the letter.
   2. Determine your market.
   3. Select appeals adaptable to your market.
   4. Organize the facts in a logical, effective plan.

D. Illustrate the above steps on the overhead using transparencies of letters.

E. Emphasize the four steps in an effective letter plan.
   1. Attracting attention
   2. Building interest and desire
   3. Convincing the reader
   4. Directing favorable action

F. Refer to textbook to aid discussion—distribute letters and have students evaluate them.

G. Make certain students understand differences between the appeal and the buying point.
   1. Appeal—what in general makes a person want to buy
   2. Buying point—specific characteristic in the product or service or idea being sold that meets the want or need

H. Have students write a sales letter on some suggested topic; i.e., your high school yearbook. Make letter appeal to your market.

I. Use of class secretary—each student takes a turn recording notes for the day. These are maintained in a folder for the benefit of those students who are absent.

V. ASSIGNMENT AND FOLLOW-UP

A. Collect sales letters and analyze each letter.

B. Write additional sales letters and encourage creativity.

C. Prepare a bulletin board display of effective sales letters.

D. Cut advertisements from newspapers and magazines that use descriptive words. Encourage the use of such words.

VI. EVALUATION

A. Evaluation and criticism of each other's letters by using the opaque projector

B. Vote on choice of best letters to be used on bulletin board display

C. Prepare a test that covers the objectives

*Instructional Aids**

A. Bulletin boards and posters

B. Demonstrations

C. Dramatizations and role-playing

D. Films, film strips

E. Tape recorders

F. Overhead projector

G. Controlled reader

H. Copying machines

I. Book reports

---

* See INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS in the CLERICAL OFFICE PRACTICE COURSE for a more complete and detailed listing of instructional aids.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Bonner, William H. "The Teaching of Business English and Communication," *Contributions of Research to Business Education*, (Washington, D. C.; National Business Education Association, 1971), pp. 105-113.

Green, Helen H. "Today's Communications in Clerical Practice," *Business Education Forum*, (February, 1971), pp. 14-16.

The Faculty and Staff of the El Paso Public Schools, El Paso, Texas, "Business Communications in the High School," *The ABCA Bulletin*, Vol. 33, No. 3, November, 1970, pp. 19-30.

Bower, Walter A. "RX for Effective Letter Writing," *EBTA Journal*, Volume VII, No. 2, (Spring, 1969), pp. 44-47.

DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS CAREER OBJECTIVE

Writers

Dr. E. Edward Harris
Chairman
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb

Mr. Brock Dorn
Guilford High School
Rockford

Mr. Lauren B. Housel
Division of Vocational and Technical Education
Springfield

Mr. Paul Reibman
Taft High School
Chicago

Mr. Dennis Twitty
Galesburg High School
Galesburg

Dr. Ralph D. Wray
Illinois State University
Normal

MARKETING AND DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

Distributive education is a program of instruction in distribution and marketing. Distribution, often used synonymously with marketing, relates to those activities that direct the flow of goods and services, including their appropriate utilization, from producer to consumer. These activities include marketing functions such as sales promotion, buying, operations, market research, and management.

The distributive education program has been developed to serve the educational needs of individuals within the framework of their distributive careers, whether they be preparing themselves for entry into the field, upgrading themselves in their specialization, or involving themselves in management decision-making activities.

Instruction may be classified as basic job curricula, career development job curricula, and specialist job curricula. Each of these corresponds to a level of employment responsibility and is identified with the degree of competency needed in specific distributive employment.

Basic job curricula develop fundamental techniques in sales and sales-supporting services, essential marketing concepts, qualifying social competencies, and basic skills in computations and communications. These curricula are available to prepare enrollees for threshold-level distributive occupations, involving minimal, often routine, employment responsibility.

Career development job curricula develop judgment skills in relation to the functions of marketing, merchandising, and management. They are designed to prepare students for those jobs which involve competencies and responsibilities beyond the basic job level but less advanced than those needed at the middle managment level of employment in distribution.

Specialist job curricula emphasize specific functions, product areas, or service fields at mid-levels of employment responsibility. They are designed to prepare students for distributive specializations in functions, such as furniture and home furnishing, food, or petroleum, or in service fields, such as insurance or real estate.

Philosophy. Education for distribution has received increased recognition in recent years because of the importance of marketing and distribution to the economic growth of our nation. Distribution, along with production and consumption, is one of the nation's three leading economic activities. The goods sold by one sales person make possible the paychecks for many workers on the farm, in industry, and in business.

Our system of mass production is based on an efficient system of mass distribution. If distribution fails to achieve its maximum efficiency, our nation will fall short of reaching its full economic potential.

Further, as technology advances, fewer workers will be needed to produce goods and services. More people, however, will be needed to distribute the goods and to satisfy the vastly increased need for services as the standard of living climbs ever higher. The industrial machinery of modern America will have limited effectiveness if the mass distribution of goods and services is not maintained.

Objectives. The distributive education program should be planned, designed and implemented so that students are able:

1. To enter gainful employment and advance in a distributive occupation.

2. To understand that the American private enterprise system is a cornerstone of the American Democracy.
3. To demonstrate an awareness of the civic, social, and moral responsibilities of business to society.
4. To encourage and promote the use of ethical standards in business and industry.
5. To understand the opportunities a career in a distributive occupation offers him to become a contributing member of society.
6. To analyze consumer demand and to satisfy the needs and wants of consumers intelligently, efficiently, and pleasantly.
7. To be sensitive to changes in distributive and marketing practices and procedures as they are affected by societal, economic, technical, and educational developments, and adapt to such changes.
8. To demonstrate an appreciation of the value of specifically trained personnel in distribution.

Distributive education curricula must be designed so learning will be measured in performance of occupationally accepted standards. This means that behaviorally stated objectives with performance, conditions, and standards clearly identified must become an integral part of every curriculum providing occupational preparation for distribution. Listed below are three examples of behaviorally stated objectives:

1. Given the amount of a sale and the amount tendered by a customer, the student will make change and count it back to a customer, without error!
2. Given a human relations case problem, the student will identify the facts and then in writing, enumerate and specify each piece of factual evidence without editorial comment with 80 percent accuracy in a period of 10 minutes.
3. Given the situation of a salesperson to play and an irate customer in a role-playing situation, the student will recognize the true problem and assume responsibility for solving it, by scoring at least 10 points on a 15-point rating scale.

Instructional Programs and Jobs. The problem of identifying various types of occupations and relating them to instructional programs has long persisted in education. The U. S. Office of Education specialists, executive directors of more than seventy professional educational organizations, and ad hoc committees of recognized authorities devoted eight years of effort to helping in the development of an instructional taxonomy. The U. S. Government publication, *Vocational Education and Occupations,* helps to provide students, parents, teachers, and guidance and administrative staff personnel with the information, which has been so desperately needed. Hopefully, the information listed below and the document itself will assist in program planning, implementation and evaluation. In addition, they can provide urgently needed resources for counseling purposes and give direction to the development of curriculum materials.

Of the 21 programs identified for instruction in distributive education by the U. S. Office of Education, four examples have been listed here together with appropriate job code numbers from the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* In order to incorporate the tremendous scope of job opportunities, it is imperative that teachers and administrators in distributive education obtain the DOT. The detailed job classifications are essential in guiding each individual so that he might meet his career objective.

Publications listing the occupations in which training should be given in the marketing area may be obtained by writing to: Division of Vocational and Technical Education, 1035 Outer Park Drive, Springfield, Illinois 62704.

Automotive (04.03)

Organized subject matter and learning experiences related to the variety of sales and sales-supporting tasks performed by distributive employees and management personnel in retail, wholesale, and service establishments engaged in selling, renting, caring for or storing of cars and trucks, and in selling automotive parts, accessories, and equipment.

DOT Code	*Occupational Title*
163.158	Spare Parts Field Representative
185.168	Manager, Parts
185.168	Service Manager
187.168	Manager, Storage Garage
187.168	Manager, Vehicle Leasing and Rental
187.288	Service Management Specialist

191.158	Service Representative
280.358	Salesman, Automobile
280.358	Salesman, Automobile Parts
280.358	Salesman, House Trailers
280.358	Salesman, Motor Vehicles and Supplies
280.458	Salesperson, Automobile Accessories
289.358	Salesperson, Parts
296.368	Car Locator
299.387	Appraiser, Automobile
620.281	Automobile-Repair-Service Salesman
915.137	Car-Wash Supervisor
915.878	Parking-Lot Attendant
919.368	Dispatcher, Car Rental
919.478	Car Rental Clerk

General Merchandise (04.08)

Organized subject matter and learning experiences related to a variety of sales and sales-supporting tasks performed by distributive employees and management personnel engaged primarily in selling various types of merchandise at retail in department stores, junior department stores, variety stores, general merchandise stores, discount stores, and catalog houses.

DOT Code	*Occupational Title*
162.158	Buyer
162.158	Buyer, Assistant
185.168	Manager, Store
185.168	Manager, Merchandise
189.168	Director, Service
189.168	Junior Executive
189.168	Manager, Trainee
209.588	Marker
211.468	Cashier
240.368	Collector

241.368	Adjustment Clerk
243.468	Sales-Check Writer
249.368	New-Account Clerk
249.368	Contract Clerk
249.368	New Accounts Teller
263.458	Salesperson, Yard Goods
266.358	Salesperson, Cosmetics and Toiletries
274.358	Salesperson, China and Glassware
283.458	Salesperson, Silverware
289.458	Salesperson, General
289.458	Salesperson, Flying Squad
290.468	Sales Attendant
290.478	Sales Clerk
294.258	Auctioneer
296.358	Personal Shopper
296.388	Comparison Shopper
297.458	Demonstrator
299.138	Manager, Department
299.358	Bridal Consultant
919.883	Deliveryman

Industrial Marketing (04.12)

Organized subject matter and learning experiences related to the tasks performed by sales and management personnel in establishing market potentials and selling goods and services to business and institutional buyers for use in their operations.

DOT Code	*Occupational Title*
163.118	Manager, Sales
163.168	Manager, Utility Sales and Service
183.118	Manager, Branch
189.118	Manager, Industrial Organization
189.268	Manager, Technical Service

204.388	Sales Correspondent
252.158	Salesman, Industrial Relations
258.358	Salesman, Printing
259.358	Salesman, Weather Forecasting Service
263.358	Salesman, Canvas Products
265.358	Salesman, Paper and Paper Products
265.358	Salesman, Pressure-Sensitive Tape
266.258	Salesman, Chemicals and Drugs
268.358	Salesman, Plastic Products
270.258	Salesman, Rubber Goods
271.358	Salesman, Abrasives
273.258	Salesman, Foundry and Machine Shop Products
273.358	Salesman, Metals
273.358	Salesman, Wire Rope
276.158	Salesman, Machinery
276.358	Salesman, Lubricating Equipment
276.358	Salesman, Radiographic Inspection Services
276.358	Salesman, Safety Equipment
276.358	Salesman, Textile Machinery
276.358	Salesman, Ultrasonic Equipment
276.358	Salesman, Welding Equipment
278.258	Salesman, Communication Equipment
281.158	Salesman, Printing Supplies
281.358	Salesman, Bottles and Bottling Equipment
281.358	Salesman, Church Furniture and Equipment
281.358	Salesman, Cordage
281.358	Salesman, Office Machines
281.358	Salesman, School Equipment and Supplies
281.458	Salesman, Commercial Equipment and Supplies

282.258	Salesman, Dental and Medical Equipment and Supplies
282.258	Salesman, Surgical Appliances
282.258	Salesman, Medical Equipment and Supplies
282.358	Salesman, Veterinarian Supplies
284.258	Salesman, Precision Instruments
284.358	Salesman, Engineering Supplies
289.158	Manufacturer's Representative
289.158	Salesman, Containers
289.358	Salesman, Religious Supplies
289.358	Salesman, General

Transportation (04.19)

Organized subject matter and learning experiences related to the physical movement of people, personal effects and products, and the sales, storing and sales-supporting tasks performed by distributive employees and management personnel in enterprises engaged in passenger and freight transportation, public warehousing, and services incidental to transportation.

DOT Code	*Occupational Title*
166.228	Airplane, Stewardess, Chief
184.118	Director, Transportation
184.118	District Sales Representative
184.118	Manager, Operations
184.118	Manager, Regional
184.118	Superintendent, Airport
184.168	Dispatcher, Chief
184.168	General Agent, Operations
184.168	Manager Bus Transportation
184.168	Manager, Locker Plant
184.168	Manager, Station
184.168	Manager, Terminal
184.168	Manager, Traffic

184.168	Manager, Warehouse
184.168	Port Traffic Manager
184.168	Station Master
184.168	Superintendent, Cold Storage
184.168	Superintendent, Division
184.168	Superintendent, Pipe Lines
184.168	Superintendent, Transportation
211.468	Toll Collector
219.488	Rate Clerk
237.368	Information Clerk
255.258	Traffic Agent
259.458	Crating-and-Moving Estimator
276.358	Salesman, Material Handling Equipment
280.358	Salesman, Aircraft
280.358	Salesman, Aircraft Equipment and Parts
280.358	Salesman, Boats and Nautical Equipment
280.358	Salesman, Marine Supplies
280.358	Salesman, Railroad Equipment and Supplies
351.878	Porter, Pullman
352.878	Airplane Stewardess
352.878	Hostess, Train, Bus
358.878	Baggageman
909.138	Driver Supervisor
910.138	Railway-Express Agent
910.[illegible]38	Baggage-and-Mail Agent
910.368	Reservation Clerk
911.138	Documentation Supervisor
912.138	Supervisor, Ticket Sales
912.162	Schedule Analyst
912.368	Reservations Agent

912.368	Airplane-Dispatch Clerk
912.368	Transportation Agent
913.138	Road Supervisor
913.168	Dispatcher
913.363	Taxi Driver
913.463	Bus Driver
913.868	Caller
919.138	Depot Master
919.368	Ticket Agent
922.133	Warehouse Traffic Man
929.133	Materials-Handling Foreman
929.887	Material Handler

Subjects. The subject matter of high school distributive education programs is identified with the competencies universally needed in distributive employment. The subject matter is divided, therefore, into areas of instruction that correspond to these competencies. The emphasis placed on the areas of instruction varies depending upon such factors as the job level for which a curriculum is designed and the students' occupational objectives. These areas of instruction are always taught, however, in relation to one another and to the field of distribution.

The subject matter of the instructional areas progresses in depth and complexity from basic job curricula to career development job curricula to specialist job curricula. A student in a secondary school who completes a basic job curriculum and decides to enter a career development job curriculum in the same school may study the same areas of instruction in both curricula. In the career development job curriculum, however, the subject matter become more complex to prepare the student for a more advanced job level. Thus, he obtains a greater depth and breadth of study in the areas of instruction.

These areas of instruction are applicable to both cooperative and project training. In cooperative training, classroom instruction is coordinated with a series of on-the-job learning experiences related to each student's occupational objective. The subject matter in the cooperative plan is taught, therefore, in relation to the learning experiences that students encounter in their scheduled part-time jobs. (See Figure 1.) In an alternate approach, project plan coordinates classroom instruction with a series of individually selected learning experiences or projects related to each student's occupational objective. The areas of instruction in this plan are presented, therefore, in relation to school-directed participation experiences. (See Figure 2.) If a teacher desires a structure for the first marketing course, reference may be made to the suggested course outline in Figure 3.

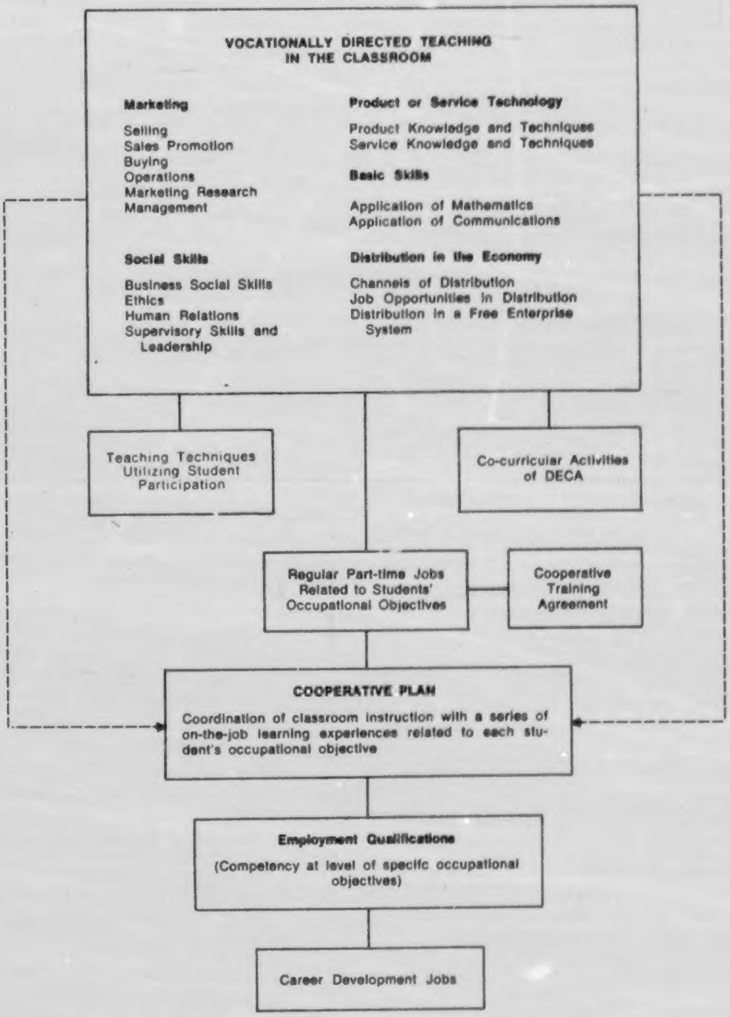
Implications of Levels of Training Opportunities. An individual can participate in the distributive education program at progressive levels of job requirements. In fact, this is to be encouraged since occupational choices mature, procedures and products change, and successful marketing itself depends upon innovations and shifts in personnel responsibilities, organization, and operation.

In curricula designed for high school age youth, a projection should be made of training opportunities for which they may be eligible upon completion of the current course of study. There are a variety of training opportunities through which competencies may be gained or maintained for different levels of distributive employment. From the beginning of their occupational interest and work lives, individuals should be helped to accept training as a valued aspect of employment.

High school students initiating vocational training in the 10th, 11th, or 12th grades must realize that they determine what job preparation they seek, how much they will undertake, and for how long; and later, how often they will turn to distributive education to add to their employment qualifications. For example, a potential high school dropout may complete a basic job curriculum and decide to broaden his employability beyond the requirements of this level by enrolling in a career development job curriculum. Even at the completion of this curriculum, he may decide to delay full-time employment and enter a post high school specialist job curriculum. Another individual may begin his job preparation in a career development job curriculum and upon completion of this sequence of training become employed in a career development job. Periodically thereafter, he may return to distributive education for updating courses in order to maintain his employment qualifications.

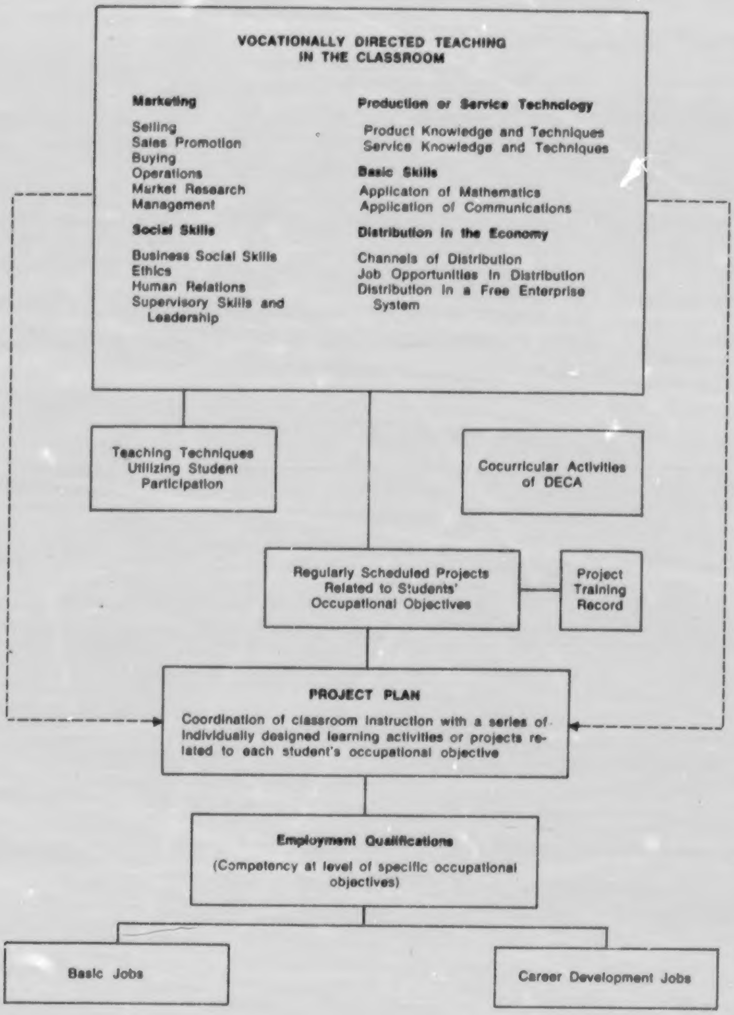
The variety of beginning, continuing, and stopping points in job preparation and development provides a realistic base for employment security. Those in basic job or career development job curricula should find in distributive education's training opportunity a constructive bulwark against limited or obsolescent qualifications.

FIGURE 1. THE COOPERATIVE PLAN IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS


VOCATIONALLY DIRECTED TEACHING IN THE CLASSROOM
Marketing
Selling
Sales Promotion
Buying
Operations
Marketing Research
Management
Product or Service Technology
Product Knowledge and Techniques
Service Knowledge and Techniques
Basic Skills
Application of Mathematics
Application of Communications
Social Skills
Business Social Skills
Ethics
Human Relations
Supervisory Skills and Leadership
Distribution in the Economy
Channels of Distribution
Job Opportunities in Distribution
Distribution in a Free Enterprise System
Teaching Techniques Utilizing Student Participation
Co-curricular Activities of DECA
Regular Part-time Jobs Related to Students' Occupational Objectives
Cooperative Training Agreement
COOPERATIVE PLAN
Coordination of classroom instruction with a series of on-the-job learning experiences related to each student's occupational objective
Employment Qualifications
(Competency at level of specific occupational objectives)
Career Development Jobs

Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Distributive Education in the High School*, Washington, D.C., 1969.

FIGURE 2. THE PROJECT PLAN IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS


VOCATIONALLY DIRECTED TEACHING IN THE CLASSROOM
Marketing
Selling
Sales Promotion
Buying
Operations
Market Research
Management
Social Skills
Business Social Skills
Ethics
Human Relations
Supervisory Skills and Leadership
Production or Service Technology
Product Knowledge and Techniques
Service Knowledge and Techniques
Basic Skills
Applicaton of Mathematics
Application of Communications
Distribution in the Economy
Channels of Distribution
Job Opportunities in Distribution
Distribution in a Free Enterprise System
Teaching Techniques Utilizing Student Participation
Cocurricular Activities of DECA
Regularly Scheduled Projects Related to Students' Occupational Objectives
Project Training Record
PROJECT PLAN
Coordination of classroom instruction with a series of individually designed learning activities or projects related to each student's occupational objective
Employment Qualifications
(Competency at level of specific occupational objectives)
Basic Jobs
Career Development Jobs

Source U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Distributive Education in the High School*, Washington, D.C., 1969.

UNIT / PART	I GETTING STARTED Introduction to Level — The New Look in Marketing	II ADJUSTING TO THE JOB (Increasing Productivity)
CAREER DEVELOPMENT	1 What's in it for you? 2 Getting the job 3 Adapting to policies and procedures	19 Your place in the organization 20 Human relations in retailing 21 Responding to supervision
CONSUMER	4 Customer is king. (Store revolves around customer.) 5 Types of firms. 6 Retail structure	22 The changing market 23 Consumer motivation. Life Styles. 24 How people buy
SELLING	7 Approaching the customer and determining needs. 8 Presenting the merchandise. 9 Closing & post-sale activities	25 Merchandise approach. 26 Overcoming objections. 27 Suggestion selling & trading up.
OPERATIONS & MGMT.	10 Cashiering & wrapping. 11 Returns & adjustments. 12 Special sales records & customer service.	28 What is profit? 29 Volume turnover. 30 What is data processing.
MERCHANDISING	13 Receiving, checking and marking. 14 Stockkeeping & taking inventory. 15 Preventing theft & stock shrinkage.	31 The image (policies). 32 Fashion & design. 33 Planning the assortments.
SALES PROMOTION	16 The promotion process. 17 Visual merchandising & packaging are a team. 18 Purpose of advertising.	34 Principles of design. 35 Color. 36 Creating a display.

III DEVELOPING YOUR CAREER SPECIALIZATION	IV LOOKING AHEAD TO SUPERVISION, MANAGEMENT AND OWNERSHIP
37 Why people work (personal inventory). 38 Career ladders in retailing (including ownership opportunities). 39 Related occupations.	55 Personal economics for young workers. 56 Planning your future. 57 Influencing others and selling ideas (motivation)
40 Research. 41 Segmentation. 42 Consumer movement.	58 The retailer looks ahead. 59 The future of customer services. 60 Government rules & regulations.
43 Role of selling. 44 Selling Systems (continuum). 45 The sales load.	61 Problem-solving techniques. 62 Handling difficult sales. 63 Professional selling (ethics? managing sales personnel?)
46 Forms of credit. 47 Promoting & controlling credit. 48 Using credit in finance as an income source.	64 Location & trade area analysis. 65 Organizing & capitalization. 66 Finance & control.
49 Pricing systems & strategies. 50 Margins & Markup. 51 Inventory control systems (stock control)	67 Buying systems. 68 Buying resources & terms. 69 Data processing.
52 Reaching your target population (audience) 53 Developing the message. 54 Creating the ad.	70 Public relations, publicity & other forms of sales promotion. 71 Planning promotions (budget & calendar) 72 Evaluating promotions (advertising & display)

Students to be served by the project plan or in-school vocational program are classified as:

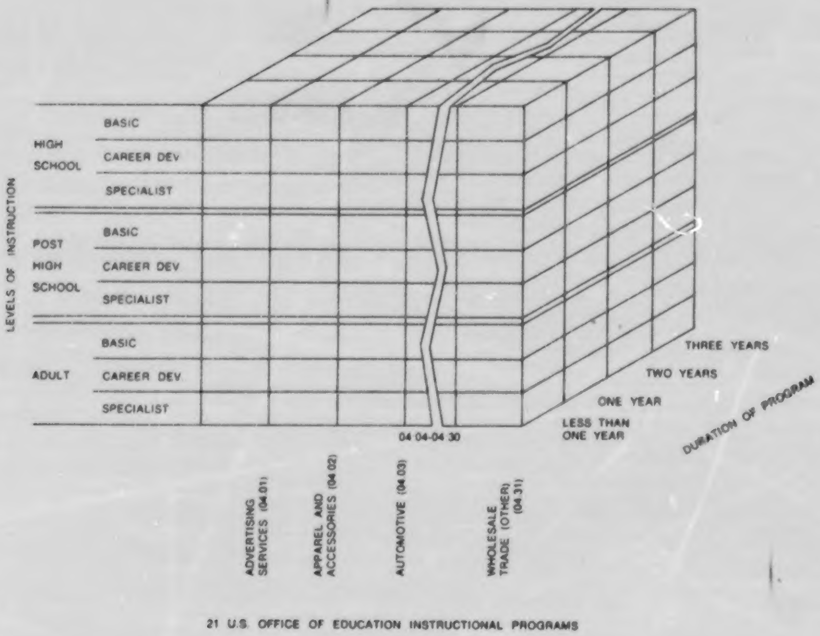
1. Students who plan to follow the complete sequence of project plan training involving one or both levels of preparatory curriculum suitable for high school students.
2. Individuals who plan to participate in a sequence of training, culminating in the cooperative plan, in preparation for their occupational objectives.
    a. Some of these students will complete a basic job curriculum with the project plan and then continue their training in a career development job curriculum with the cooperative plan.
    b. Other students will begin in a career development job curriculum under a project plan and transfer in this job curriculum to the cooperative plan.
    c. Others will complete project plan training in a career development job curriculum and, following graduation or completion of the curriculum, move to a specialist job curriculum utilizing the cooperative plan.
3. Persons whose distributive objective is real, but not primary, at the time of counseling.
    a. Some students cannot work part time on a regular basis under a cooperative plan because of academic requirements or scheduling problems related to college entrance.
    b. The vocational objectives of other students require supporting courses in distribution or marketing which may be completed in a short block of time.
4. Students attending schools located in areas which lack a sufficient number of approvable employing businesses, thus preventing the development of cooperative training agreements.
5. Individuals who have academic, socio-economic, or other handicaps which keep them from having the personal employability requisite to part-time employment. (These persons generally will be enrolled initially in basic job curriculums.)

Students to be served by the cooperative plan may be classified as:

1. Individuals who meet standards of employability related to social, arithmetic, and English language competencies.

FIGURE 4

Potential Programs in Distributive Education


LEVELS OF INSTRUCTION
HIGH SCHOOL
BASIC
CAREER DEV
SPECIALIST
POST HIGH SCHOOL
BASIC
CAREER DEV
SPECIALIST
ADULT
BASIC
CAREER DEV
SPECIALIST
04.04-04.30
ADVERTISING SERVICES (04.01)
APPAREL AND ACCESSORIES (04.02)
AUTOMOTIVE (04.03)
WHOLESALE TRADE (OTHER) (04.31)
21 U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS
THREE YEARS
TWO YEARS
ONE YEAR
LESS THAN ONE YEAR
DURATION OF PROGRAM

Curriculum Organization. The potential for offering a wide variety of instructional programs in a community is almost unlimited. Earlier, four of the twenty-one U.S. Office of Education instructional programs in marketing and distribution were listed. Multiply all twenty-one programs by the three curriculum levels in high school distributive education (basic, career development and specialist), then add some skill center programs and it is possible to have over seventy different programs. Multiply seventy by the duration of the instructional program (less than one semester, one semester, one year, two years, three years, etc.); and it is entirely possible to have over 500 different high school instructional programs in distributive education in a community. The potential for developing interdisciplinary programs in other vocational areas would add additional programs. Figure 4 illustrates this concept.

   a. Some students' personal employability has been developed in a basic job curriculum.
   b. Other students' school and home experiences have contributed to maturity and seriousness of purpose.
   c. Still other students' anecdotal records show success in applied learning.
2. Persons whose occupational objectives may be achieved in career development job curriculums.
   a. Some students become eligible for career development job curricula after completing basic job curricula under a project plan.
   b. Other students' after-school employers recommend them for career development job curricula.
   c. Still other students meet admissions criteria developed by advisory committees and school administrators.
3. Persons whose distributive objective is real, but not primary, at the time of counseling.
   a. Some students cannot work part time on a regular basis under a cooperative plan because of academic requirements or scheduling problems related to college entrance.
   b. The vocational objectives of other students require supporting courses in distribution or marketing which may be completed in a short block of time.
4. Students attending schools located in areas which lack a sufficient number of approvable employing businesses, thus preventing the development of cooperative training agreements.
5. Individuals who have academic, socio-economic, or other handicaps which keep them from having the personal employability requisite to part-time employment (These persons generally will be enrolled initially in basic job curriculums.)

Students to be served by the cooperative plan may be classified as:

Individuals who meet standards of employability related to social, arithmetic, and English language competencies.

a. Some students' personal employability has been developed in a basic job curriculum.

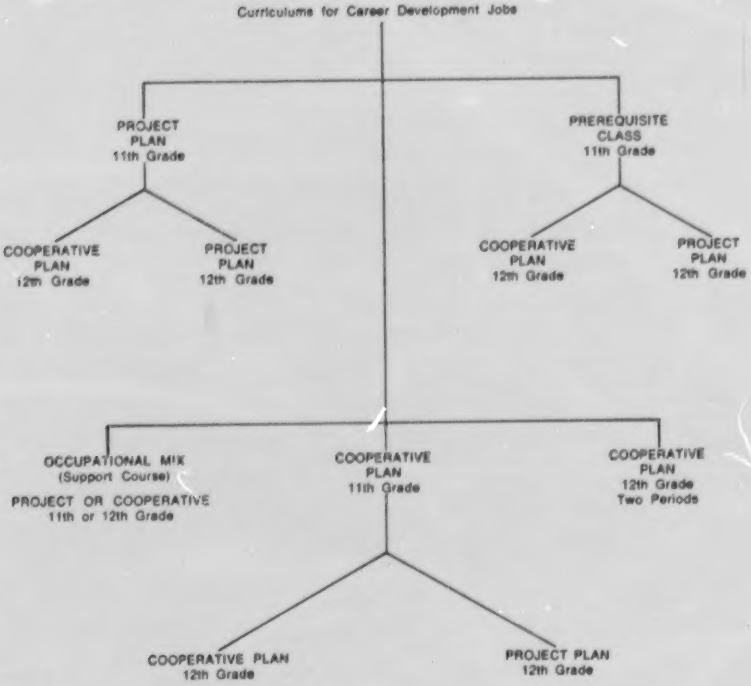
b. Other students' school and home experiences have contributed to maturity and seriousness of purpose.

Before any instructional program can be implemented, a number of key decisions must be made. Questions such as those listed below must be carefully thought through.

1. How much time will be devoted to achieving program objectives?
2. What courses will make up the program?
3. What will be the grade level placement of the courses?
4. How will the program be scheduled?
5. How will staff members be selected and assigned?
6. Which existing courses need revision?
7. What new courses must be added?
8. How will guidance and exploratory experiences be provided?
9. How will students be selected?
10. How much credit will be given or recognition for satisfactory completion of instruction?
11. What type of occupational experience laboratory programs will the students participate in — project or cooperative?
12. Who will administer the program?

FIGURE 5

SUGGESTED ORGANIZATIONAL OPTIONS


Curriculums for Career Development Jobs
PROJECT PLAN 11th Grade
PREREQUISITE CLASS 11th Grade
COOPERATIVE PLAN 12th Grade
PROJECT PLAN 12th Grade
COOPERATIVE PLAN 12th Grade
PROJECT PLAN 12th Grade
OCCUPATIONAL MIX (Support Course)
PROJECT OR COOPERATIVE 11th or 12th Grade
COOPERATIVE PLAN 11th Grade
COOPERATIVE PLAN 12th Grade Two Periods
COOPERATIVE PLAN 12th Grade
PROJECT PLAN 12th Grade

* More than one organizational pattern for preparatory instruction may be used simultaneously in one school for the same occupational classification. Likewise preparatory curriculums for one or more occupational classifications may be scheduled in the same high school.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Distributive Education in the High School*, Washington, D.C., 1969, p. 55.

Figure 5 illustrates the organizational options for career development job curricula. Assigning labels to the various phases and courses of the different curricula varies from community to community. Introduction to distribution is the most commonly used course title for the tenth grade phase of the marketing and distributive education curriculum. Marketing is the description used with the eleventh grade phase and distributive practices or distributive education are terms which are frequently used to identify the twelfth grade portion of the distributive education program. A majority of the secondary schools in the State of Illinois offering distributive education have a two-year curriculum sequence to prepare students for career development jobs. Hopefully, programs specifically designed to prepare youth for basic and specialist jobs in the field of distribution will be implemented. The U. S. Office of Education publication *Distributive Education in the High School* provides some excellent guidelines for designing curriculum based on analyses of occupations.

Curriculum Outline for Analyses of Occupations[1]

I. COMPETENCY IN MARKETING—THE DISCIPLINE

  A. Selling—Communicating Facts, Influencing Buying Decisions, and Providing Required Services.

    1. Basic jobs—What responsibilities are required in selling?
      a. Handling customers
      b. Showing products
      c. Offering services
      d. Making a sale
      e. Building good will

    2. Career development jobs—What is required in the sales process?
      a. Involving the customer
      b. Handling objections
      c. Getting the buying decision
      d. Controlling costs
      e. Reflecting policies
      f. Meeting quotas

    3. Specialist jobs—What is required of the sales advisor?
      a. Analyzing customer needs
      b. Interpreting product values
      c. Reaching mutually profitable decisions

---

[1] Ibid. p. 24-28.

   d. Maintaining customer satisfaction
   e. Building a clientele

B. Sales Promotion—Advertising, Display, Special Events, and Public Relations

   1. Basic jobs—What is required to participate in sales promotion activities?
      a. Maintaining selling aids — signs, mannequins, fixtures
      b. Creating point of sale materials and simple display props
      c. Checking quantities of advertised merchandise
      d. Arranging advertised merchandise on counters, tables, or shelves
      e. Keeping informed on sales promotion activities

   2. Career development jobs—What is required to coordinate sales promotion activities with personal selling?
      a. Knowing location of advertised merchandise
      b. Checking selling points of advertised or display merchandise
      c. Informing customers of special events
      d. Replacing or rearranging interior displays as merchandise is sold from them
      e. Anticipating trade and seasonal emphases

   3. Specialist jobs—What is required to plan and evaluate sales promotion activities?
      a. Selecting suitable merchandise for advertising or display
      b. Checking advertising proofs
      c. Analyzing results of certain advertisements
      d. Assisting in planning for special events and public relations activities
      e. Maintaining a check on competitors' promotions

C. Buying—Planning, Obtaining, and Controlling Manufactured Goods or Raw Materials for Resale or Processing

   1. Basic jobs—What is required to support the buying process?
      a. Careful handling of merchandise to reduce markdowns
      b. Keeping buyer informed on low quality points of staple stock
      c. Participating in merchandise count for physical inventory

        d. Following control procedure

    2. Career development jobs—What is required to implement buying activities?
        a. Maintaining customer "want" lists and keeping buyer informed
        b. Keeping record of merchandise sold by classification—use of ticket stubs or special form
        c. Assisting in preparing for inventory
        d. Handling special orders for customers
        e. Following procedures on returns and exchanges

    3. Specialist jobs—What is required to make buying decisions?
        a. Knowing "when-to-buy"
        b. Preparing merchandise plan by seasons
        c. Preparing and maintaining a model stock plan
        d. Knowing sources of information on economic indicators to forecast expected sales
        e. Maintaining sales records for years past
        f. Knowing available resources and characteristics of individual manufacturing firms
        g. Keeping up to date on trends through trade journal reading and buying office aids

D. Operations—Handling Products, Protection, Customer Services, Purchasing Supplies, and Using Equipment, Supplies, and Services

    1. Basic jobs—What is required to identify and use sales-supporting activities?
        a. Avoiding waste of supplies—wrapping materials, pencils, forms
        b. Adhering to safety measures and policies
        c. Using or operating special equipment—conveyor belt, price ticket machine
        d. Receiving, checking, and marking merchandise
        e. Wrapping merchandise to return to vendor and to give to customer; doing gift wrapping
        f. Assisting in delivery procedures
        g. Carrying merchandise for customers to central points or to automobiles

    2. Career development jobs—What is required to be discerning in the use of sales-supporting activities?
        a. Knowing appropriate times to suggest special services to customers

    - b. Being familiar with procedures for layaway, "will call," wrapping, delivery, lost and found, adjustments
    - c. Following store policy regarding shoplifting prevention
    - d. Conserving supplies—sales books, pencils, special forms
    - e. Adhering to safety policies and assisting co-workers in doing so
    - f. Maintaining stock classifications
- 3. Specialist jobs—What is required to improve operational procedures?
    - a. Knowing available cost reduction techniques
    - b. Analyzing efficiency of existing customer services
    - c. Determining need for increase or decrease in services offered
    - d. Training employees in shoplifting prevention policies, safety measures, and use of supplies and equipment
    - e. Supervising employees engaged in sales-supporting activities
    - f. Keeping informed on merchandising trends

E. Market Research—Helping to Determine the Climate for Selling Goods and Services and for Practical Research Techniques

- 1. Basic Jobs—What is required to recognize where improvements can be made?
    - a. Looking for easier ways to increase speed and efficiency of operation
    - b. Maintaining simple records of pertinent factors, such as amount of supplies used over a given period, number of items sold of a certain style or classification, or times of heaviest customer traffic
    - c. Keeping supervisor informed of possible improvement areas noted from observation or simple recordkeeping
    - d. Watching customers' and co-workers' reactions to products and services
- 2. Career Development Jobs—What is required to identify and study problems?
    - a. Analyzing customer objections to determine significant trends
    - b. Analyzing adjustments to determine merchandise needing to be returned to manufacturer, nature of complaints, and underlying causes

    c. Observing peak shopping periods and relationship to floor coverage by salespeople at these times
    d. Maintaining sales records to determine best item sellers, probable markdown items, and lost sales as result of not having particular merchandise on hand
    e. Keeping up to date on trends in product line and relating trends to merchandise purchased for own store or department

  3. Specialist Jobs—What is required to interpret and apply research findings?
    a. Organizing basic statistical information into appropriate categories for analysis
    b. Conducting meetings to determine from employees possible areas for improvement and suggested ways of handling
    c. Knowing effective methods of presentation of research findings to management
    d. Conducting experimental procedures to remedy problem situations

F. Management—Policies, Organization, Personnel, and Financing

  1. Basic Jobs—What is required to respond to management decisions?
    d. Adhering to company policies
    b. Following established channels of communications and authority
    c. Understanding importance of one's own job duties
    d. Facilitating the speed of moving merchandise to selling floor
    e. Reacting constructively to change

  2. Career Development Jobs—What is required to implement management decisions?
    a. Interpreting policies to new co-workers
    b. Performing and understanding one's own job relative to the responsibilities of other personnel
    c. Participating in special meetings and programs initiated by management
    d. Stimulating esprit de corps
    e. Maintaining unit or dollar quotas
    f. Understanding legislation affecting employee performance

3. Specialist Jobs—What is required to occupy a liaison position with management?
    a. conducting initial and follow-up training concerning company policies and procedures
    b. Analyzing the efficiency and effectiveness of relationships among functions, personnel, and physical factors in the organizational plan
    c. Interpreting management's policies, decisions, and plans to employees, and bringing employees' problems, attitudes, or suggestions to the attention of management
    d. Assisting management in performing the financing function—preparing reports necessary for profit and loss statements, facilitating customer credit procedures

II. COMPETENCY IN A TECHNOLOGY—PRODUCT KNOWLEDGE, SERVICE, AND SPECIAL TECHNIQUES

A. Basic Jobs—What is Required in the Manipulative Skills of the Technology?
   1. Using correct procedures to handle produce carefully
   2. Stocking product on counters, tables, racks, or shelves
   3. Using correct wrapping and packing procedures for product
   4. Following established stock system for product—size, color, style, classification arrangements
   5. Using equipment, catalog, rate guides

B. Career Development Jobs—What is Required in the Substantive Knowledge of the Technology?
   1. Understanding facts about manufacturing process, characteristics, advantages and disadvantages, care and cautions in use of the product
   2. Interpreting product in terms which appeal to customers
   3. Knowing what facets of knowledge of the product to use with different customers
   4. Adapting to individual customers' needs for information and value

5. Identifying strengths of the product in relation to all job duties

C. Specialist Jobs—What is Required to Analyze the Efficiency of the Technology?

1. Analyzing merchandise returned as unsatisfactory by customers to determine reasons for poor performance
2. Knowing how to coordinate product with related items, especially for "big ticket" merchandise or service (interior decorating knowledge for home furnishing products; landscaping knowledge for nursery products)
3. Comparing product with competitors' products (comparison shopping as one activity)
4. Analyzing product in relation to recent trends (fashion style, innovations, novelty appeal)
5. Training employees in product knowledge

III. COMPETENCY IN SOCIAL SKILLS — PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES, ETHICAL CONDUCT, HUMAN RELATIONS, SUPERVISION, AND LEADERSHIP.

A. Basic Jobs—What is Required in Business Social Skills?

1. Dressing appropriately for the job and being well groomed
2. Maintaining good health for effective job performance
3. Developing the personality traits necessary for success in the job, especially honesty, dependability, and loyalty
4. Using correct procedures in applying for the job
5. Representing the business positively to customers and friends

B. Career Development Jobs—What is Required in Human Relations and Ethical Conduct?

1. Adapting to the personality and needs of customers
2. Avoiding misrepresentation of people, products, and policies
3. Understanding the needs and motivations of co-workers and self

4. Working cooperatively with supervisors and management
5. Maintaining an objective point of view in problem situations

C. Specialist Jobs—What is Required in Supervision and Leadership?

1. Interpreting management's policies and employees' problems
2. Building morale
3. Training and follow-up of employees
4. Interviewing and handling corrections and grievances
5. Working cooperatively with other supervisors, as well as management and employees

IV. COMPETENCY IN BASIC SKILLS — MATHEMATICS AND COMMUNICATIONS

A. Basic Jobs—What is Required in Using the Basic Skills Accurately?

1. Understanding basic arithmetical processes
2. Making change and using the cash register
3. Writing and speaking clearly
4. Knowing correct telephone usage
5. Listening and following directions

B. Career Development Jobs—What is Required to Facilitate Using Basic Skills?

1. Using mathematics proficiently on the job—in preparing sales tickets and recording sales, computing employee discounts, shipping charges, alteration expenses, layaway tickets
2. Understanding key principles in mathematics of distribution, such as markup and profit
3. Communicating effectively with customers, co-workers and supervisors
4. Using the telephone correctly
5. Using the terminology of distribution and developing a vocabulary descriptive of the product or service

C. Specialist Jobs—What is Required in Ability to Interpret Records and Reports?

1. Understanding the mathematical factors involved in retail method of inventory
2. Understanding procedures in preparing purchase orders
3. Knowing policies and procedures of the particular firm concerning pricing, shipping arrangements, markdowns, allowable expenses, accounts payable, and compensation
4. Selecting pertinent factors from a statistical or written report
5. Synthesizing several reports into a composite report, statement, or presentation for management

V. COMPETENCY IN DISTRIBUTION IN THE ECONOMY — CHANNELS OF DISTRIBUTION, JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN DISTRIBUTION, AND DISTRIBUTION IN A FREE ENTERPRISE SYSTEM

A. Basic Jobs—What is Required to Identify Distributive Activities and Opportunities?

1. Knowing the meaning of distribution
2. Understanding how distributive activities affect the individual in a free economy
3. Understanding the kinds of activities involved in distribution
4. Being aware of job opportunities in distribution, and how these jobs are classified, and qualifications needed for employment in each classification

B. Career Development Jobs—What is Required to Relate Distributive Functions to Each Other and to the Economy?

1. Understanding the relationship of distribution to production and consumption
2. Understanding the meaning of gross national product and its relationship to distribution
3. Knowing the channels of distribution and being able to determine appropriate channels for different products and services

4. Understanding distributive functions and their interrelationships

C. Specialist Jobs—What is Required to Reconcile Privileges with Responsibilities in a Free Economy?

1. Understanding the role of a citizen in a free economy, his privileges, restrictions, and responsibilities
2. Understanding the role of local, state, and federal government in a free enterprise system
3. Comparing the role of the citizen and the government in a free economy to citizenship
4. Being aware of trends in distribution, their causes, and effects

SELECTED REFERENCES

Ashmun, Richard, and Roger Larson. *Review and Synthesis of Research on Distributive Education 1966-1968*, Second Edition. Columbus, Ohio, 1970.

Distributive Education and You. American Vocational Association, Washington, D.C., 1970.

Harris, E. Edward. *Employer Preferences and Teacher-Coordinator Practices in Distributive Education.* Gregg/McGraw-Hill, New York, 1970.

Price, Ray, ed. *The Emerging Content and Structure of Business Education.* NBEA Yearbook, 1970.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Distributive Education in the High School.* Washington, D.C., 1969.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and U. S. Department of Labor, *Vocational Education and Occupations.* Washington, D.C., 1969.

"Standard Terminology For Curriculum and Instruction in Local and State School Systems," Superintendent of Documents: HE 5.223:23052, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1971.

COOPERATIVE VOCATIONAL OFFICE EDUCATION AND DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Writers

Mrs. Pearl M. Washington, Chairman
East St. Louis Senior High School
East St. Louis

Dr. Ronald L. Vaughn
Western Illinois University
Macomb

Dr. E. Edward Harris
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb

COOPERATIVE VOCATIONAL OFFICE EDUCATION AND DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Cooperative vocational education is an instructional plan which combines learning experiences gained through regularly scheduled supervised employment in the community and vocationally oriented in-school instruction. This definition implies that cooperative vocational education must combine vocationally oriented classroom instruction with a series of progressive on-the-job learning experiences which are consistent with the occupational objectives of students.

The term "cooperative" describes the working relationship between school and business in preparing students for the world of work. To achieve the goals of this team teaching arrangement, the teacher-coordinator, employer, and training sponsor have instructional responsibilities. In school the teacher-coordinator combines related instruction with student employment experiences. He also works closely with the training sponsor in planning student learning experiences which are consistent with both student and employer goals. The training sponsor combines regularly scheduled part-time employment experiences and instruction so that the student will be able to develop and refine competencies needed for entry-level jobs and possible advancement in his chosen occupational field. An organizational plan for programs in cooperative vocational education is illustrated. The following essential components of the cooperative plan are highlighted: (1) understanding and cooperative administrative personnel, (2) well-qualified and dedicated teacher-coordinator, (3) competent training sponsors, (4) sound advisory committee, (5) vocationally oriented classroom instruction, (6) progressive on-the-job instruction and application, (7) youth organization that supplements instruction, and (8) coordinated comprehensive total instructional program related to occupational objectives of students.

Philosophy. Distributive education and office education programs using the cooperative plan have prepared successfully many young people for the world of work. In a report to the United States Subcommittee on Education, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education commented, "The part-time cooperative plan is undoubtedly the best program we have in vocational education. It consistently yields high placement records, high employment stability, and high job satisfaction."[1]

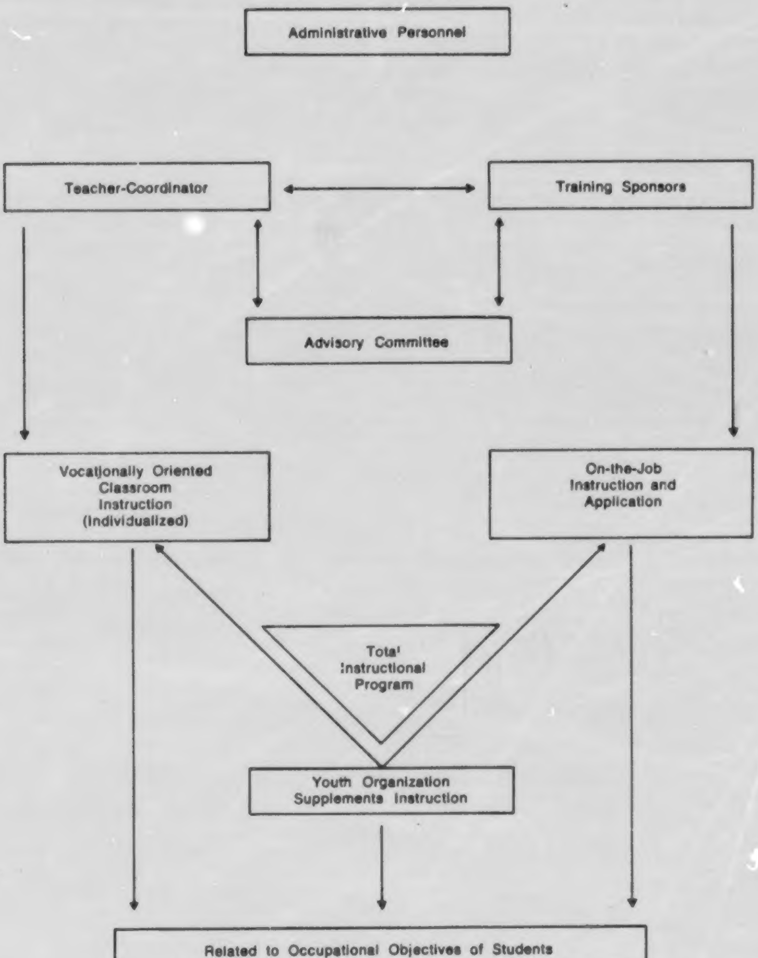
Rupert Evans, a member of the National Advisory Committee on Vocational Education, in commenting on the advantage of cooperative vocational education said, "Typical research studies show that more than 80 per cent of the cooperative education graduates are placed in the occupation for which they were trained."[2]

---

[1] Rupert N. Evans, "Cooperative Programs Advantages, Disadvantages, and Factors in Development," *American Vocational Journal*, May, 1969, p. 19.

[2] Ibid., p. 19.

ORGANIZATIONAL PLAN FOR COOPERATIVE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION


Administrative Personnel
Teacher-Coordinator
Training Sponsors
Advisory Committee
Vocationally Oriented Classroom Instruction (Individualized)
On-the-Job Instruction and Application
Total Instructional Program
Youth Organization Supplements Instruction
Related to Occupational Objectives of Students

Congress thought so highly of the record of cooperative vocational education in preparing persons for employment that it authorized Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 funds to be used to extend this kind of training, particularly for those students in areas with high dropout and youth unemployment rates.

Each student should have an opportunity to become all that he is capable of becoming. In helping a student to reach his capacity, educators should review standards as attainable goals rather than elimination mechanisms.

Objectives. One of the expected outcomes of cooperative vocational education is the student's ability to adjust to work environments—the office, store, or institution. The intent is that by teaching him to interact effectively with fellow workers and supervisors under various conditions in the cooperative training station, he will acquire capabilities which will persist as he progresses in his career and takes positions in other work environments. The students should be able:

1. To learn how to learn a job.
2. To interact with co-workers, supervisors, and employers.
3. To participate in worker group as a member and leader.
4. To develop desirable work habits and attitudes.
5. To make rational economic decisions about employment spending and saving, and participate in a private enterprise economy.
6. To prepare for the jobs ahead.
7. To manage work and leisure time.
8. To keep abreast of current developments in the occupation.
9. To manipulate equipment.
10. To gather, process, communicate, or apply technical information.
11. To perform a service.[3]

Another expected outcome of cooperative vocational education is the student's finding satisfactory occupational roles in which he can get a sense of achievement and self-realization.

---

[3] A Guide for Cooperative Vocational Education. University of Minnesota, College of Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1969, pp. 47-48.

The instruction focuses on learning about the occupational field and the lives of workers in the occupation and looking inward at one's own potential needs, abilities, and aspirations as they relate to occupation and career. Specifically, a student should be able:

1. To assess and analyze his own needs, interests, abilities, and aspirations.
2. To assess and analyze the potential opportunities and satisfactions of an occupational field.
3. To predict his own chances of being successful and satisfied in the occupational field.
4. To make decisions and plans in order to achieve goals and aspirations.[4]

Guidelines for Planning and Implementing. The planning for cooperative distributive education or office education should be a team effort involving key individuals in the school and community. School personnel should include: superintendent, principal, director of vocational education, department heads, guidance personnel and teachers in the department. From outside the school, help should be sought from: Illinois State Employment Service, key figures in business, industry and labor, representatives from the Illinois State Board of Vocational Education and others who may have a service to provide. Naturally, in any given community, the type and size of the school and the kind of organizational plan will dictate the persons to be involved in the development. The cooperative plan should be organized to meet the needs of individuals for occupational adjustment and preparation as well as the needs of the community.

Cooperative education is only one plan through which vocational competencies can be developed. If the cooperative plan is to be effectively implemented, the following guidelines are worthy of serious consideration:

1. Employment of highly qualified and dedicated personnel.
2. Requirement of written training agreements and individual student training plans which have been carefully developed and agreed upon by the employer, training sponsor, student, and coordinator.
3. Provision for adequate time in the teacher-coordinator's schedule to coordinate classroom instruction supervise on-the-job training (one-half hour per student per week).

---

[4] Ibid., p. 48.

4. Supervision of on-the-job training by a training sponsor who has been carefully prepared for his role by the teacher-coordinator.

5. Utilization of the services of occupationally aware guidance and teaching personnel to advise students concerning career choices and planning.

6. Awareness by each student of a realistic career objective of which his present instructional program is an integral part.

7. Selection of students by the teacher-coordinator on the basis of need, interest, and ability to profit from the instruction.

8. Precedence of the classroom instruction phase of the cooperative program (which correlates with the on-the-job training) by a program of well-planned courses designed to assist in the occupational preparation of the student.

9. Instruction is usually given by the teacher-coordinator for the vocationally oriented classroom phase of the cooperative program.

10. Determination of enrollment in the vocationally oriented phase of the cooperative program be based upon availability of adequate classroom facilities and teacher-coordinator time to provide individualized instruction.

11. Confirmation or change of the instructional program by periodic analysis of the occupations for which the cooperative plan is being utilized.

12. Advice and assistance by an advisory committee, (including representatives from business, labor, and education) in planning, developing, and implementing the cooperative plan.

13. Effective development and recognition of a youth organization as a co-curricular phase of the instruction phase of the program.

14. Provision of adequate facilities, equipment, and materials in order that instruction may be related to the student's on-the-job experiences and career goal.

15. Remuneration to students for work performed and credit toward graduation for the on-the-job instruction phase of the program.

16. Compliance by training stations with all State and Federal laws regarding employment practices.
17. Integration of home visitations and/or parental conferences to assist the teacher-coordinator in the total development of each student-learner.
18. Implementation of periodic follow-up studies and utilization of the results of such studies by the teacher-coordinator for the improvement of the program.
19. Provision of an extended contract for the teacher-coordinator to enable him to develop training station personnel, conduct follow-up studies, make home visitations, develop training plans, update program records, and other program development activities.

Staff Requirements. The single most important factor in providing good cooperative vocational education is the staff which operates the plan. The competencies needed by staff members in cooperative vocational education are derived from an analysis of the tasks they perform in their positions. A systematic approach to filling positions is to adequately describe the job and then determine what competencies are needed. Although each position will vary with different organizational plans, there are some similarities in several job descriptions of cooperative vocational education positions.

The duties and tasks performed by the teacher-coordinator may be categorized as follows:[5]

A. Guidance and Selection of Students
    1. Describing the program to students
    2. Working with guidance personnel
    3. Providing occupational information
    4. Counseling students about entering the program
    5. Gathering information on students
    6. Programming and scheduling
    7. Helping enrollees with career planning
B. Placing Students in Training Jobs
    1. Enlisting participation of cooperating employers
    2. Selecting suitable training stations for each student

---

[5] Ibid., pp. 93-94.

   3. Orienting employers, training supervisors and co-workers
   4. Preparing students for job interviews
   5. Placing students on the job

C. Assisting Students in Adjusting to Their Work Environment
   1. Helping students on their jobs
   2. Dealing with job problems
   3. Planning personal development with training supervisors and students
   4. Evaluating job progress

D. Improving Training Done on the Job
   1. Establishing responsibilities on the job
   2. Developing training plans
   3. Consulting and assisting training supervisors
   4. Maintaining training emphasis

E. Correlating Classroom Instruction with On-The-Job Training
   1. Determining needed instruction
   2. Assembling instructional materials
   3. Preparing for instruction
   4. Teaching classes
   5. Directing individual projects and study
   6. Obtaining assistance from other teachers
   7. Advising training supervisors concerning applications of classroom instruction to be made on the job.
   8. Evaluating learning outcomes

F. Assisting Students in Making Personal Adjustments
   1. Aiding students in correcting poor personal habits
   2. Counseling students with personal and socio-economic problems
   3. Assisting students with educational problems

    4. Resolving behavioral problems

G. Directing Vocational Youth Organizations
    1. Advising youth groups
    2. Guiding students in organization of activities
    3. Participating in group activities

H. Providing Services to Graduates and Adults
    1. Providing guidance and placement services for graduates
    2. Participating in the planning and operation of adult education programs

I. Administration Activities
    1. Planning program objectives
    2. Research and planning—surveys
    3. Organizing and working with advisory committee
    4. Planning curriculums
    5. Communicating school policy
    6. Preparing reports
    7. Budgeting and purchasing
    8. Participating in professional meetings
    9. Consulting with manpower agencies such as employment services and Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS)

J. Maintaining Good Public Relations
    1. Planning the publicity program
    2. Preparing printed publicity
    3. Constructing displays and exhibits
    4. Contacting news media
    5. Maintaining communication with faculty, parents, community, employers, school administrators, and student body

A job description for a teacher-coordinator position is a guide in determining minimum standards for evaluating staff member competencies. The Illinois State Board of Vocational

Education establishes minimum requirements for cooperative vocational education staff members; however, local school personnel may need more explicit criteria for evaluating the competence of potential or currently employed staff members.

It is recommended that the following selection factors be used as a basis for filling a teacher-coordinator position:

1. Occupational experience
2. Business and professional education preparation
3. Professionalized vocational education preparation
4. Personal qualifications

Occupational Experiences. It is recommended that a coordinator have a minimum of 2000 hours or one year of appropriate occupational experience. Consideration should be given to the quality, variety, and recency of any experience of shorter duration which provides opportunities to examine occupations in terms of training needs and job problems such experience may be more valuable than many years of employment experience.

Employment experience should be evaluated in terms of its relationship to the occupations to be taught. A series of part-time jobs in entry-level positions might satisfy the hour requirement, but might not provide the teacher with the needed occupational competence to train students for adjustment and advancement in the field. Supervisory experience is particularly valuable because, presumably, the individual has demonstrated his ability to supervise the work of others and has some insight into positions beyond the entry level.

It is important that the teacher's occupational background contains enough variety of experiences to help him conceive the needed vocational capabilities for a variety of positions within the field and for clusters of competencies which are common among different occupations and jobs. Variety may be achieved through employment in various types of positions or in positions with a variety of duties.

The rapid changes in occupations and in business practices make it necessary to evaluate occupational experience in terms of recency. There is a growing trend to request that vocational teachers obtain additional occupational experience periodically in order to keep abreast of change and to maintain instruction which is relevant to the occupations students will enter.

Business and Professional Education Preparation. The business course requirements should be approximately thirty semester hours, which includes technical courses that are directly related to the occupational field. In addition to technical courses which are directly related, such courses as economics, industrial relations, occupational sociology, and vocational psychology are valuable courses for cooperative vocational education personnel.

In addition, teacher-coordinators should have a background in professional education courses. These commonly include educational psychology, teaching methods, tests and measurements, and secondary school student teaching or internship.

Professionalized Vocational Education Preparation. Preparation of staff should include training in course organization, preparation of instructional materials, and methods and techniques of instruction in special areas. To assist in the preparation of cooperative vocational education personnel, preservice and inservice teacher programs should offer the following courses:

1. Organization and administration of cooperative vocational education
2. Coordination techniques
3. Issues and principles of occupational education
4. Directed occupational experience
5. Teaching methods in cooperative vocational office education and cooperative distributive education
6. Individualizing instruction
7. Occupational guidance
8. Vocational guidance
9. Adult, post-secondary, and other specialized courses (as appropriate for a position)

Bulletin No. 160, Circular Series A, which is issued by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, entitled *The Illinois Program for Evaluation, Supervision, and Recognition of Schools*, contains a complete listing of technical and professional educational requirements.

Personal Qualifications. To the extent possible, a teacher-coordinator should be a model for his students, possessing those personal qualities and characteristics that he expects his students to develop and display. Some of these characteristics include:

1. Enthusiasm
2. Tactfulness

3. Attractive appearance
4. Warmth and apathy
5. Adaptability
6. Resourcefulness
7. Effective communicative ability
8. Punctuality

Staffing Patterns. Many large schools have a department or division of vocational education with a director who supervises the total vocational education program. Within that type of framework, the usual pattern is to have teacher-coordinators for each type of program. Each coordinator may be responsible for the related classroom instruction, the youth organization, and the supervision of on-the-job training for up to thirty students. He may also teach related pre-employment classes for the occupational area which he coordinates. Although it is generally recommended that the same individual teach the related class and coordinate the on-the-job training, it is possible to have coordinators whose primary responsibility is placement and follow-up if there are other vocationally qualified teachers to provide related vocational instruction.

In some school systems where there are a large number of individual classes of cooperative vocational education students and a variety of programs, it may be advisable to have a supervisor who is responsible for all the programs using the cooperative plan. The supervision and coordination of a comprehensive program is necessary to facilitate consistent policies and practices among vocational fields and to maintain conformity between program development and training needs.

In smaller schools one teacher-coordinator for both office education and distributive education may be adequate. For a very small school, it may be possible for one teacher-coordinator to serve students in several occupational fields; however, the teacher-coordinator should then be qualified in these fields, or there should be vocationally-qualified teachers in the school to provide occupationally related instruction. In rural communities where the number of students in any one occupational field is very limited, it may be advisable to employ one teacher-coordinator to serve two or more schools.

Determining Teacher-Coordinator Work Load. Sometimes administrators are tempted to relax standards in order to serve large numbers of students. When this occurs, usually adequate occupational preparation and teacher enthusiasm are minimized. The determination of the work load should be considered in relation to the program organization and objectives. In order to prepare students adequately for occupational adjustment and advancement, those who direct learning must have ample time to coordinate on-the-job training and related vocational instruction.

The responsibilities of a cooperative vocational education teacher-coordinator cannot be equated with those of regular classroom instructors. The coordination of on-the-job training with classroom instruction requires a minimum of one-half hour per student per week. If a teacher-coordinator has twenty-five students, which is an average size class, his weekly work load might be similar to the following:[8]

2-3 hours of related classes per day	10-15 hours
1-2 hours of preparation per day individual student contact	5-10 hours
3 hours of coordination per day (employer or training station contact)	15 hours
Total —	30-40 hours per week

Adequate time to coordinate classroom instruction and supervise on-the-job training is essential. However, the work load and the staffing pattern for cooperative vocational education will vary among schools depending on the following factors:

1. Teacher-coordinator contractual arrangement
2. Number and characteristics of participating firms
3. Number and diversity of occupations to be taught
4. Size and location of the school district and the employment community
5. Staff cooperation with the school (guidance personnel, related vocational subject teachers, and special education staff)

The coordinator of a program using the cooperative plan has many duties and responsibilities which require extra time, talent, and energy. For example, home visitations, parental conferences, follow-up studies, training plans, program records, and preparation of training station personnel are crucial and essential coordination activities. However, all too frequently staff members do not have sufficient time to do a thorough job. Because the success of the program will depend on the availability of time to perform these duties and other important activities, it is recommended that a teacher-coordinator be employed on an extended contractual basis. An examination of the teacher-coordinator job description clearly indicates the need for an extended contract.

---

[8] Ibid., p. 89.

Facilities, Equipment, and Materials. The following two essential elements deserve special consideration in planning and implementing both vocational office and distrbutive education programs using the cooperative plan:

1. Provision of adequate facilities, equipment, and materials in order that instruction may be related to the student's on-the-job experiences and career goal.
2. Determination of enrollment in the vocationally oriented phase of the cooperative program be based upon availability of adequate classroom facilities and teacher-coordinator time to provide individualized instruction.

Some school administrators and teachers may be under the impression that in cooperative vocational education the employers supply all the necessary facilities and equipment and that financial outlay for this purpose should be virtually nil; this is far from the truth. In fact, a poorly equipped and improperly located classroom may be more conspicuous in cooperative education than in any other educational plans because of the close relationship between the school and the community. Also, students who come into contact with the latest machines and materials are more conscious of an outmoded school environment than are regular students.

When making decisions concerning facilities and equipment, program planners should keep in mind the following conditions under which a cooperative vocational education operates: (1) the purpose of the program is to help students bridge the gap between school and work life, hence an occupational atmosphere is essential, (2) communication with employers and the community should be made as easy as possible, and (3) each student really has a curriculum of his own and needs individual counseling and individual instructional materials.

Coordinator's Office. Access to the coordinator's office and classroom for students, employers, and resource visitors is an important consideration in locating cooperative vocational education facilities. An office, therefore, located near a building entrance as well as the classroom will minimize disturbances. Ideally the office will be in the proximity of the guidance area to facilitate the sharing of student information with the counselor.

There are many duties associated with the coordinator's job that are not common to most teaching positions. For that reason, it is necessary for the teacher-coordinators to have adequate facilities and equipment to fulfill his numerous administrative and counseling responsibilities. In addition to the usual reports and records, he has responsibility for participating in the selection of students, supervising the cooperative occupational experience, making periodic follow-up studies and sponsoring a youth organization. Sometimes his office is used for conferences with employers or parents, or both; and it is frequently used to discuss confidential matters with students and staff members.

The many uses of the coordinator's office call to mind the following considerations:

1. Adequate space to insure comfortable seating and good communication for three or four people—more if possible.
2. Provisions for maintaining the privacy of confidential matters with visibility of the classroom.
3. A telephone with connections for outside calls.
4. Ample filing equipment.
5. Appropriate desk space and a typewriter.
6. Some storage space for audio-visual equipment and book shelves as needed.

Classrooms. The primary purpose of classrooms is for instruction, but they usually serve a number of other purposes as well. For example, a classroom may be used as a laboratory, a study center, a meeting place for vocational youth organization groups and outside advisory groups, or an adult evening school class. If separate facilities are not provided, a classroom may also be used as a materials production room, a display workshop, and a storage room. Careful consideration should be given to the flexibility of use of the equipment.

Good facilities have a pronounced psychological effect on the cooperative students themselves. Most of them take pride in an attractive room and identify with it; to some, it may be a "home away from home." Students learn better in a meaningful environment; they may also learn better on their jobs because of similarity in atmosphere and activities.

Evaluation. No educational strategy requires as great a sensitivity to individual and community needs as the cooperative plan. This requirement necessitates carefully selected personnel with special talents and attitudes who perform a surprising number of guidance and public relations functions in addition to teaching. The time and effort expended in planning and manning cooperative education positions is, without doubt, the most critical of all program activities for the school administrator. In light of the dynamic nature of the program, it is highly essential that every advantage be taken of opportunities to update and upgrade teacher-coordinator competencies through conferences, training institutes, and workshops.

The following coordinators' check list of recommended practices provides a sound basis for examining either a cooperative office education or cooperative distributive education program.[7]

A. Students

1. Students are placed in jobs matched to their abilities and interests and in which they are likely to be satisfactory and satisfied. The students meet the requirements of labor laws.
2. A system of admitting students to the program has been developed jointly with the guidance staff, administration, and participating employers.
3. Programming procedures have been worked out with the approval of counselors and the administrator.
4. A method of granting credit and grading has been adopted.
5. Students receive full pay for on-the-job training time.
6. Students are placed in work environments which are healthful and where safety standards are maintained.

B. Public Relations

1. The faculty and administration have been oriented.
2. The student population and their parents are informed about the program.
3. Procedures of the program have been developed in cooperation with school, community, labor, and employer groups.
4. A planned program of spaced publicity has been made.
5. Concerned groups in the community have been informed about the program.

---

[7] Ibid., pp. 123-125.

6. Potential employers have been contacted and asked to participate.

C. Coordination

1. The teacher-coordinator has coordination time allotted (approximately one-half hour per week per student on the program).
2. Each student works and learns under the direction of a training sponsor throughout the time he is in the program.
3. A training agreement and on-the-job training plan has been arranged between the coordinator, each training sponsor and student, and his parents.
4. The coordinator has a system of reporting to the administrators, counselors, and other faculty to keep them posted on the program.
5. The coordinator has a system for evaluating (see example, figure 2) occupational experience and job performance.
6. Coordination calls are made to each training station approximately once every two weeks.
7. The coordinator implements a plan for developing training sponsor.

D. Training Program

1. The program prepares students for occupations which offer career opportunities and are "susceptible to advancement."
2. Provisions are made to keep the training up to date and in line with occupational changes.
3. A written statement of program purposes has been prepared and disseminated so that concerned individuals and groups understand the purposes of the program.
4. Long-range goals for groups to be served have been established and priorities have been set.
5. Student and manpower needs are considered in the design of the program and in its long-range development.
6. Provisions are made for periodic and continuous

evaluation of student outcomes and effects of the program on manpower and the community.

7. The recommendations suggested by the State Board of Vocational Education are followed.
8. A vocational youth organization chapter is an important part of the instructional program.

E. Related Instruction

1. Provision has been made for school instruction related to the occupational experiences and career objectives of the students.
2. The competencies taught in school are correlated with the occupational field in which on-the-job training is given.
3. Provision is made for adequate facilities and equipment, appropriate for the occupations to be taught and the needs of the students.
4. Job-related instructional materials are provided.
5. The methods of instruction and learning activities are designed to develop occupational competencies.
6. Students are prepared for occupational flexibility by learning how to learn a job effectively and efficiently because they are made aware of the process; and methods of learning are used that carry over into the learning of future jobs.
7. Students learn to accept responsibility for their own progress in learning a job and planning a career.

Source of Report: Cooperative Education Department, Leyden High Schools, Franklin Park, Illinois.

Employer Report COOPERATIVE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT **Leyden High Schools**

Student ______________________ Employer ______________________

Evaluation period from ______________________ to ______________________

Instructions Please check one statement in each category that best describes your student-learner's attitude or performance. Additional comments are welcomed.

1. **PUNCTUALITY** . . .
   - ☐ Always on time
   - ☐ Usually on time
   - ☐ Frequently late

2. **ATTENDANCE** . . .
   - ☐ Outstanding
   - ☐ Seldom absent
   - ☐ Frequently absent: number of days ______

3. **PERSONAL APPEARANCE** . . .
   - ☐ Is appropriately groomed for job
   - ☐ Should make an effort to improve
   - ☐ Lacks consistency
   - ☐ Careless appearance

4. **ATTITUDE TOWARD LEARNING** . . .
   - ☐ Is enthusiastic
   - ☐ Attentive to direction
   - ☐ Needs to ask more questions
   - ☐ Somewhat indifferent

5. **ATTITUDE TOWARD SUPERVISION** . . .
   - ☐ Profits by suggestions
   - ☐ Has difficulty accepting correction
   - ☐ Accepts correction but does not act on it
   - ☐ Resents correction

Comments ______________________

6. **EFFECT ON OTHERS** . . .
   - ☐ Is courteous and considerate of others
   - ☐ Is courteous
   - ☐ Should be more considerate
   - ☐ Has been discourteous

7. **INITIATIVE** . . .
   - ☐ Initiates tasks; self-directed
   - ☐ Requires normal supervision
   - ☐ Must have considerable supervision
   - ☐ Needs prodding

8. **WORK HABITS** . . .
   - ☐ Observes all safety (or sanitation) practices
   - ☐ Generally careful
   - ☐ Careless and unsafe

9. **QUALITY OF WORK** . . .
   - ☐ Is accurate; attentive to details
   - ☐ Usually accurate and reliable
   - ☐ Meets normal requirements
   - ☐ Many errors; a careless attitude

10. **JOB PERFORMANCE** . . .
    - ☐ Works efficiently
    - ☐ Work output is satisfactory
    - ☐ Lacks consistency
    - ☐ Amount of work is unsatisfactory

Comments ______________________

Please itemize and evaluate those skills which are basic to your student's job success

SKILLS	ABOVE AVERAGE	SATISFACTORY	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT (IDENTIFY)

Additional comments ______________________

Since your student learner's previous rating, has he/she improved ______ stayed the same ______ or become lax ______

Supervisor ______________________

WHITE: STUDENT PARENT GREEN: SUPERVISOR PINK: COUNSELOR BLUE: FILE MANILA: COORDINATOR

971

SELECTED REFERENCES

A Guide for Cooperative Vocational Education. University of Minnesota, College of Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1969.

An Articulated Guide for Cooperative Career Education. Bulletin No. 34-571, Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation—Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois, 1971.

Harris, E. Edward. *Employer Preferences and Teacher-Coordinator Practices in Distributive Education.* Gregg/McGraw-Hill, New York, 1971.

Harris, E. Edward. *Requirements for Office and Distributive Education Teacher-Coordinators.* Monograph 115. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1967.

Mager, Robert F. and Kenneth M. Beach, Jr. *Developing Vocational Instruction* Fearn Publishers, Palo Alto, California, 1967.

Mason, Ralph E. and Peter J. Haines. *Cooperative Occupational Education and Work Experience in the Curriculum.* The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Danville, Illinois, 1965.

Review and Synthesis of Research on Cooperative Education. The Center for Vocational and Technical Education—Ohio State University, Columbus Ohio, 1970.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Vocational Education—The Bridge Between Man and His Work.* General Report of the Advisory Council on Vocational Education, November 1968.

THE BUSINESS TEACHER AS A PROFESSIONAL

Mrs. Cleta C. Whitacre
Advisory Committee Member
Marion Senior High School
Marion

Writers

Miss Gerry Brannan
Division of Vocational and Technical Education
Springfield

Dr. Tom Elliott
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston

Mrs. Marjorie Hudson
Carbondale Community High School
Carbondale

Mrs. Lucille Ireland
Greenville High School
Greenville

Dr. Harry Jacobson
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale

Mr. Edgar Ludwig
Morton West High School
Berwyn

Mrs. Eva M. Maxey
Deerfield High School
Deerfield

Mrs. Helen Miner Miller
College of Lake County
Grayslake

Mrs. Roberta Osborn
McLeansboro High School
McLeansboro

Dr. Warren Perry
Illinois State University
Normal

Miss Marjorie Reith
Belleville Township High School
Belleville

Mrs. Frances Sanders
Shelbyville High School
Shelbyville

Miss Annette Theodore
Elgin High School
Elgin

Mrs. Catherine Whitaker
LaSalle-Peru High School
LaSalle

Mr. William Will
Maine East High School
Park Ridge

CREATIVE CLASSROOM TEACHING IN BUSINESS COURSES

Creative teaching begins with carefully expressed behavioral objectives indicating what the student should know and be able to do at the end of each assignment or unit of study. The differences in the nature of these objectives, the varying backgrounds and learning abilities of the students, and the group instructional environment and media available will determine the learning experiences necessary to achieve the objectives.

Creative classroom teaching becomes a necessity when the instructor accepts the social, cultural and economic background, and the varying learning abilities of his students. Optimum learning across the student continuum can occur only when there is a matching of the different kinds of instructional materials and procedures with the learner. A merger of teacher identification with the student, a thorough knowledge of subject matter, competency in handling various instructional techniques, and pupil effort are necessary if the student is to achieve his potential.

Various perceptions of subject matter held by the instructor provide the basis for varying interpretations which will permit an open channel for the student to discover his own interpretation and to develop it to his fullest capacity. Creative teaching requires flexibility in seeing new relationships or combinations of ideas in the area of instruction as opposed to conformity. Each perception needs to be translated and communication skills are needed. Creativity is expressed when instructional ingenuity is displayed with meaningful materials, techniques, and methods in the classroom. The teacher must be able to develop new instructional materials and become acquainted with current educational methods, technology, research, and experiments.

A continuing evaluation of the results is necessary to revise instructional content, procedures, and programs to achieve instructional objectives.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Business students should be encouraged to join and become active in youth organizations related to occupational choice. Membership serves to reinforce classroom activity, deepen career interests, and broaden career goals. Participation in club activities enables members to develop poise, decision-making powers, responsible attitudes, the ability to speak before groups, and other qualities of leadership. The social activities make it possible for participants to experience social growth.

Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA) is a national organization for students enrolled in business subjects, and Future Secretaries of America (FSA) is an international student association for prospective secretaries. Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA) is the national youth organization for students enrolled in distributive education programs and who are preparing for full-time occupations in the fields of marketing, distribution, and management. Office Education Association (OEA) is a national organization which provides youth enrolled in vocational office education programs with a vehicle for learning and advancing.

Opportunities to participate in organized activities are also available to business students who do not hold membership in youth organizations. For example, one-day student conferences are sponsored by various professional groups such as National Secretaries Association, Business and Professional Women's clubs, Chicago Area Business Educator's Association, and community colleges. Conferences of this type, which make it possible for students to visit large metropolitan centers and college campuses, often feature leading authorities from the business world and demonstrations of new office equipment. These activities provide an added dimension, but membership in a youth organization offers challenge, motivation, and educational experiences on a continuing basis.

INVOLVEMENT IN PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

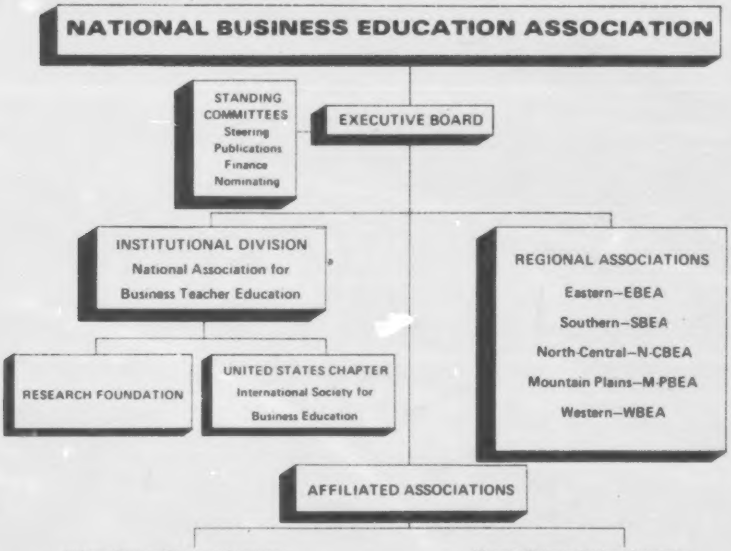
Opportunities for the business teacher to profit from and gain stature in his profession are many. For a minimal amount of money, the business teacher may belong to his area, state, regional, national, and international professional organizations. He may attend and participate in their conferences and conventions, and receive monthly, quarterly, and special professional magazines and bulletins. Early in his career development years he will find as a student that special rates are available to him in many business education associations.

Professional membership alone will not result in achieving professional stature. Keeping abreast of what is new in education will result from systematic reading of professional publications, attending meetings and conventions, and actively participating in discussions, programs, and workshops. Undoubtedly the most personal satisfaction results from accepting leadership and becoming "actively involved" in the decision-making processes of local, regional, or state organizations.

Of equal importance is the fact that active involvement in organizations generates a momentum which pervades all of the teacher's profession-related activities as a practicing teacher, as an organization member, and even as a student in graduate courses.

Professional Organizations

The following chart taken from the *Business Education Forum*, April, 1971, denotes the organizational structure of national and regional associations for business teachers.


NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
STANDING COMMITTEES
Steering
Publications
Finance
Nominating
EXECUTIVE BOARD
INSTITUTIONAL DIVISION
National Association for Business Teacher Education
REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS
Eastern—EBEA
Southern—SBEA
North-Central—N-CBEA
Mountain Plains—M-PBEA
Western—WBEA
RESEARCH FOUNDATION
UNITED STATES CHAPTER
International Society for Business Education
AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

Alabama Business Education Association
Arizona Business Education Association
Arkansas Business Education Association
California Business Education Association
Catholic Business Education Association-Midwest Unit
Chicago Area Business Educators Association
Colorado Business Education Association
Connecticut Business Educators Association
Delaware Business Teachers Association
Florida Business Education Association
Georgia Business Education Association
Greater Houston Business Education Association
Guam Business Education Association
Hawaii Business Education Association
Idaho Business Education Association
Illinois Business Education Association
Indiana Business Education Association
Iowa Business Education Association
Jamaica Business Teachers Group
Kansas Business Teachers Association
Kentucky Business Education Association
Louisiana Business Education Association
Maryland Business Education Association
Michigan Business Education Association
Minnesota Business Education Association
Mississippi Business Education Association
Missouri Business Education Association
Montana Business Teachers Association
Nebraska State Business Education Association
Nevada (Northern) Business Education Association
Nevada (Southern) Business Education Association
New Hampshire Business Educators Association
New Jersey Business Education Association
New Mexico Business Education Association
North Carolina Business Education Association
North Dakota Business Education Association
Ohio Business Teachers Association
Oklahoma Business Education Association
Oregon Business Education Association
Pennsylvania Business Educators Association
Philippine Secretarial Educators Association
St. Louis Area Business Educators Association
South Carolina Business Education Association
South Dakota Business Education Association
Tennessee Business Education Association
Texas Business Education Association
Tri-State Business Education Association
Utah Business Education Association
Virginia Business Education Association
Washington State Business Education Association
West Virginia Business Education Association
Wisconsin Business Education Association
Wyoming Business Education Association

National

National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington D. C. 20036

National Business Education Association (formerly United Business Education Association), 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington D. C. 20036

National Association of Business Teacher Education (Division of NBEA)

American Vocational Association, Inc., 1025 15th St., N. W., Washington D. C. 20005

Delta Pi Epsilon (honorary graduate fraternity) National Office, Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, Minnesota 56082

American Council on Consumer Interests, Stanley Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65201

Joint Council on Education and American Economics Association, 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10036

Regional

North-Central Business Education Association (formerly National Business Teachers Association and one of the five regional associations affiliated with NBEA)

State

Illinois Education Association

Illinois Vocational Association

Illinois Business Education Association

Affiliates

Accredited Business Schools Association

Central Illinois Area Business Education Association

Chicago Area Business Educators Association

Chicago Business Teachers Association

Eastern Illinois Business Education Association

Illinois Cooperative Vocational Education Coordinators Association

Peoria Area Business Education Association

Southwestern Area Business Education Association

Southern Illinois Business Education Association

Western Illinois Area Business Education Association

Consumer Federation of Illinois

Delta Pi Epsilon *Chapters in Illinois*

Alpha Beta — University of Illinois, Urbana

Alpha Phi — Northern Illinois University, DeKalb

Beta Beta — Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville

Beta Iota — Illinois State University, Normal

Lambda — Northwestern University

Professional Publications

Business education periodicals and other literature include the following free publications:

Balance Sheet. South-Western Publishing Company

Business Education World. Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Collegiate News and Views. South-Western Publishing Company

Typewriting News. South-Western Publishing Company

Publications received from membership in professional organizations:

Business Education Forum (incorporates the National Business Education Quarterly), NBEA

Business Education Yearbooks, NBEA and EBTA

Business Education Association Yearbook, Metropolitan, New York, BEA

Illinois Vocational Progress, IVA

Illinois Business Education Association Reports, IBEA

Delta Pi Epsilon Journal, DPE

Business Education Index, DPE

American Vocational Journal, AVA

Illinois Education, IEA

One business education periodical which does not come through a professional membership but is worthy of subscription is the *Journal of Business Education*, Trethaway Publishing Co., Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, 18700.

There are various consumer publications available; the Consumer Federation of Illinois is located in the Monadnock Building, Room 802, 53 West Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois 60604.

Additional publications in the special fields of data processing, accounting, marketing, and consumer education are in print.

Research. Research is the principal means of finding reliable and valid answers to our problems. Business educators should try new things—dare to venture!

Both research producers and research consumers are needed in our schools. Significant research producers are most apt to be comprised of a minority of the business teachers because of opportunity, talent, or possibly desire, but this is not true of research consumers. To survive as informed business educators all must become skilled putting the findings of research to work in their classrooms.

Findings in research are frequently published in business education periodicals and monographs. Such monographs are furnished free of charge to business teachers and administrators by the South-Western Publishing Company. Research studies are listed in the *Business Education Index* which is published yearly by Delta Pi Epsilon fraternity through the editorial offices of the Gregg Division of McGraw-Hill Book Company.

The dedicated business teacher, then, is an active, inquisitive, venturesome professional whose ethical conduct sets him apart from the ordinary. A professional spirit prompts him to acquire and share his knowledge and experiences with others.

ACCREDITING AND CERTIFYING AGENCIES

Evaluation and Accountability. Business education programs should be evaluated continuously at the local level, with strong and weak points identified through the evaluation process serving as a basis for program improvement. Suggested criteria for use in local evaluations are:

1. Do the philosophy, purpose, and statement of objectives reflect current trends?

2. Is the content of basic business courses determined by study and analyses of the everyday needs of students and other members of the community for knowledge about business and economics? Are curriculum guides available in the various subject areas to show the pattern of implementation of the consumer education requirement?
3. Are the course sequences well planned and designed to meet specified objectives of the students?
4. Is the curriculum content articulated and geared to the needs of students and subjected to continuous review and revision?
5. Are there programs available that serve all types of students, including the handicapped and disadvantaged?
6. Is there evidence of financial support from the administration for the programs?
7. Is there evidence of teacher involvement in the planning, developing, implementing and expanding of programs?
8. Are vocational education youth organizations operated as an integral part of the instructional program?
9. Are instructional personnel qualified by educational training and occupational experience for the vocational education program?
10. Does the program consist of meaningful instruction in skill training as well as work attitudes necessary for employment in business, marketing, and management occupations?
11. Does the vocational education program consist of simulated experiences found in business and industry?
12. Is there an active, continuing advisory council for the vocational business education program?
13. Does the program provide for guidance, placement, and follow-up of students in the vocational business education program?
14. Is there evidence of articulation with other educational agencies?
15. Are the facilities, equipment, space, and instructional materials adequate to provide quality and up-to-date instruction?

16. Are the courses of sufficient length to permit development of a salable skill in the occupational education program?

17. Does the classroom instruction include a variety of teaching methods and techniques?

18. Is there an approved one-year and five-year vocational plan?

19. Have provisions of the local plan been made known to the faculty?

20. Has an adequate survey of occupational needs and job opportunities in the community been made?

21. Is the program sufficiently attractive to retain the services of high-quality teachers?

22. Is there a well-planned program of public relations?

Accreditation. The business education program should meet the standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This voluntary association of member schools has as its main purposes (1) to develop and maintain high standards of excellence for schools, (2) the continued improvement of the education program and the effectiveness of instruction, (3) the establishment of cooperative relationships among schools, and (4) the maintenance of effective working relationships with other educational organizations and accrediting agencies.

The Association publishes policies and evaluative criteria for the purpose of determining accreditation of member schools and suggests that schools use the criteria as a guide when undertaking a self-study. Areas deserving study are:

1. Institutional purpose and philosophy
2. Organization, administration, and control
3. Instructional program
4. Professional staff
5. Extra-classroom activities
6. Pupil personnel services
7. Institutional adaptability
8. Instructional media program
9. Financial support
10. School facilities

Evaluation. Included in the criteria upon which accreditation is based is recognition of a professional staff. The school shall be staffed by teachers who are well qualified in professional and subject matter areas. Specific qualifications are concerned with degree and legal standards, general and professional educational preparation. This accrediting association evaluates member schools every seven years with the official evaluation being made by a visiting committee after completion of a self-study by personnel of the local school.

The Illinois Constitution and Illinois Statutes provide that the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall supervise public schools and determine that they are organized and conducted as prescribed by law. He is required to enforce all recognition standards enacted by the General Assembly and all regulatory requirements which the Statutes authorize the Superintendent of Pupblic Instruction to establish. Circular Series A, Number 106, *The Illinois Program for Evaluation, Supervision. and Recognition of Schools, 1970,* contains criteria for evaluation and recognition of public schools in Illinois. Schools are evaluated and State Aid is made available to those which meet requirements for recognition.

Schools are accorded full recognition, conditional recognition, probationary recognition, or nonrecognition, and those having less than full recognition are visited each year. A school remains on probation for only one year except where there are strong extenuating circumstances to justify an extension of probation; otherwise, it is given conditional recognition, full recognition, or nonrecognition.

Evaluative criteria established by the Office of the Suprintendent of Public Instruction include:

1. Mandated programs
2. Recommended educational programs
3. Curriculum offerings
4. High School graduation requirements
5. Standards for media programs
6. Administration and supervision including basic provisions of *The School Code of Illinois.*

The Illinois Program for Evaluation, Supervision, and Recognition of Schools contains these provisions relative to "training requirements" for teachers of business subjects on the secondary level: 24 semester hours in the field, which may include a methods course with the following minimum qualifications for the subject matter areas or course taught:

Typewriting: 6 semester hours or a statement of equivalency from the institution granting the degree

Shorthand and transcription: 6 semester hours or the completion of the terminal course in the shorthand-transcription sequence

Accounting: 6 semester hours in accounting

Business law: 5 semester hours

Salesmanship: 5 semester hours covering at least two of the following: salesmanship, retailing, marketing, store management, or advertising

Business arithmetic: 2 semester hours in business arithmetic, business mathematics, or 6 semester hours in accounting

Office practice, secretarial practice, clerical practice, or office machines: 2 semester hours in course work which includes the operation of the office machines taught in the secondary school course, and qualifications for teaching whichever of the following is part of the course: typewriting, shorthand, accounting (see paragraphs 1, 2, and 3 above)

Basic business, Business I and II (basic business, general business: 10 semester hours distributed in at least 4 of the following areas: accounting and business mathematics, business English, business law, consumer education, economics, introduction to business, marketing advertising, salesmanship, or methods of teaching basic business

Business English: Qualifications for teaching typewriting, and 2 semester hours in business English, business correspondence, business communications, or business writing

Business economics: 8 semester hours in the areas of economics, finance, management, or marketing, including at least one course in principles of economics

Data processing: 2 college courses or the equivalent (a qualified mathematics teacher teaching a course in data processing will need the same requirement).

Consumer Education Requirement. Section 27-12.1 of the Illinois Statutes provides that "pupils in the public schools in grades 8 through 12 shall be taught and be required to study courses which includes instruction in consumer education, including but not necessarily limited to installment purchasing, budgeting, and comparison of prices." Teachers instructing in consumer education shall have proper certificates for the position to which they are assigned. For grades ten, eleven, and twelve, consumer education may be included in course content of other courses or it may be taught as a separate required course. The board of education may determine the pattern of instruction devoted to consumer education in the ninth grade provided it includes installment purchasing, budgeting, and comparison of prices.

Approval of Vocational Business Education Program. Vocational education programs receive additional financial support from State and Federal funds administered by the Division of Vocational and Technical Education. In order to receive approval, the local program must meet the minimum requirements as outlined for programs of instruction by the Division. These minimum requirements include minimum standards for approval of local programs and personnel involved in carrying out these programs. One of the major recommendations for teaching personnel in the vocational business education programs is that the instructor will have employment experience in the occupational specialty to be taught. Guidelines are published by the Division of Vocational and Technical Education listing minimum requirements for standards of approval of local programs and personnel.

Community College Evaluation and Recognition. Responsibility for the administration and operation of junior college districts is vested in the district junior or community college board and its staff. Standards and criteria for the evaluation and recognition of Illinois public community colleges, published by the Illinois Junior College Board, include legal basis for evaluation, administration, curriculum and instruction, and student personnel services. State Board policies, procedures, and guidelines are given for policies relating to programs, reimbursement, and recognition as well as facilities development.

Private Business Schools. The accrediting Commission for Business Schools has been designated as a nationally recognized accrediting agency by the United States Office of Education under the provision of Public Law 82-550 and subsequent legislation. A private business school may become accredited by formal action of the Commission. Accreditation is based on the reports of specially appointed inspection teams which have visited the institutions and appraised them according to standards and operating criteria established by the Commission. These criteria are concerned with:

1. Philosophy and objectives of the school
2. Educational program
3. Organization, administration, and control
4. Academic staff, instruction
5. Administrative staff
6. Library and instructional materials
7. Financial relations with students
8. The school plant
9. Admission, graduation, student services
10. Publications

Course Standards for Private Business Schools is published by the Division of Continuing Education, The Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Illinois. The standards for private business schools are established by the Superintendent of Public Instruction as required by "An Act in relation to the regulation of business schools," approved July 13, 1955, as amended. Minimum standards issued by the Superintendent of Public Instruction for use of the private business schools include definition, time requirement for the courses, skills required, and subjects required for graduation. A reassessment is currently in progress.

A directory of Illinois and out-of-state private business and vocational schools is published by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction as a service to individuals seeking information on private and vocational schools.

PRESERVICE BUSINESS TEACHER PREPARATION

Colleges and universities employ a selection and retention process as an integral part of undergraduate business teacher education programs. The procedures used are designed to encourage the prospective business teacher in his career choice only if he exhibits personal qualities considered important to success in teaching. Among traits emphasized are: intelligence, character, personal habits, physical stamina, appearance and dress, genuine interest in and affection for young people, respect for the rights and dignity of others, personal adjustment, and personality.

The undergraduate who is accepted for and retained in the business teacher education program studies general education, business content, and professional courses which have been organized to provide him with background learning and experiences appropriate for a professional.

General Education. General education courses, which explore learning common to all educated persons, should constitute from forty to sixty per cent of the undergraduate preparation of a business teacher. A sound general education broadens horizons, aids in communication, contributes to an understanding of human nature and forms the basis for successful personal and professional life. Areas of study should include language, natural sciences, behavioral sciences, mathematics, and humanities.

Business Content. Expansion of knowledge and technological advances have made business content courses increasingly important for the business education major. He should develop an understanding of broad socio-business economic concepts and become knowledgeable about the functions and tools of business through a study of economics, marketing, administration, finance, accounting, and business law. Development of proficiency in at least one specific vocational business skill is essential.

Professional Courses. The undergraduate preparation of every business teacher should include courses in educational psychology and the history and philosophy of education. Emphasis on learning theories and principles of skill building is important. Methods and other professional courses should provide laboratory experiences for the preservice teacher. These experiences enable the undergraduate to observe adolescent learning situations, experiment with and evaluate teaching techniques and devices and prepare materials for use with students of varying backgrounds and needs.

A carefully supervised preservice teaching experience is essential in any teacher education program.

Business Experience. The consensus today is that the business teacher should have a background of practical experience in the occupation for which he is preparing students. A teacher whose skills and theoretical studies have been augmented by business experience has greater resources to draw upon as he seeks to bring depth to his teaching, provide relevant examples, develop a practical approach, and inspire confidence in students.

Observation and Participation in Laboratory or Public Schools Prior to Student Teaching. Current guidelines of the Association for Teacher Education (formerly the Association of Student Teaching) dictate that the prospective teacher have early and continuing contact with youth during his college preparation. These clinical experiences often begin in the first professional education course in the form of observation in classroom situations or informal work with youth groups in the university community.

Observation and participation should be an integral part of business methods courses. Prospective business teachers should be assigned a block of time to undergo certain contacts with students in junior high or secondary school business classes which result in the development of predetermined competencies. A careful evaluation of these experiences by the methods instructor precedes aproval for an off-campus student-teaching assignment. Laboratory schools and local public schools can fulfill a most important mission in facilitating such pre-student teaching experiences. Work with small groups, preparation of lesson plans (based on behavioral objectives) and developing testing procedures are all techniques which should be experienced by the prospective teacher. The climax should be a few days of actual teaching before leaving for student teaching off campus. Ideally at least one presentation should be video taped to permit the methods student to critique his own teaching alone and then to view it again with the assistance of a skilled supervisor.

Video Taping for Teacher Self-Appraisal. For the scientific study of the teaching act, the portable video tape machine is probably the most promising device of the century for the improvement of teaching skills. Teacher characteristics, such as voice and speech patterns, are the most obvious areas requiring self-appraisal. These, however, could be assessed through the use of an ordinary audio tape recorder, which for many years has served as a useful device to improve the speech and dictation patterns of beginning teachers.

Through video taping, teachers can analyze the entire teaching performance. One the initial cosmetic reaction has passed, most teachers prove capable of analyzing the presentation and results. The video tape preserves a record of the interaction of members of the class to each other and to the teacher. Facial images and other manifestations of nonverbal behavior show acceptance or rejection, involvement or apathy, enthusiasm or boredom. The talk pattern in the room can be analyzed according to a verbal interaction category system. Student and teacher behaviors of all types are recorded for study and critique by the teacher alone or with others.

The teacher can study his teaching procedures. Did he get the students' interest in the topic before launching the unit (set induction)? Were his questions and instructions clear and concise? Did his developmental activities involve individuals in such a way that he could see and analyze closure at the end of the unit? Teacher closure (summary) is important, but cognitive closure (overt demonstration of learning by the students) is the real proof.

No audiovisual technician is needed in the classroom to video tape a lesson if portable equipment is used. Any student in the class can learn in a few minutes how to set up the machine and "pan" the camera from the teacher to the students. No special room arrangement is required and one microphone will usually record all the voices if the acoustics are average or better. A high quality portable video tape recorder, with all the necessary accessories, can be purchased for $1,200; one-hour half-inch tapes cost only $18 and are reusable. No school district or teacher education institution can deprive new or experienced teachers the opportunity of periodic self-appraisal by pleading the lack of equipment. Beyond using the video tape recorder as a preservice or in-service device to improve teaching skills, business teachers should have such equipment available for recording special kinds of class activities such as sales presentations, role-playing, telephone etiquette, and debates which can then be replayed for student critique.

Psychologically, the most effective supervision or improvement of teaching skills ordinarily occurs if the individual teacher motivates himself, rather than being "criticized" or "instructed" by a supervisor. Furthermore, this is an important characteristic of any true profession—the constant search for greater effectiveness of self.

STUDENT TEACHING

Student Teaching or Internship in Off-Campus Schools. Quality education for business demands a continuous, adequate supply of well-educated teachers who can motivate and instruct the kinds of students who are in business programs. These teachers must be able to teach not only the established business job skills, but also those more recently developed. They must be economically literate and knowledgeable about current business practices and familiar with newer concepts. Business teachers must be aware of the constant changes taking place in business and be adaptable to innovation so that the students for whom they are responsible may receive the best education possible. Since the role of the business teacher in the education process is paramount, the importance of the student teaching program is obvious in preparing adequately trained business teachers for the future.

For clarification purposes, student teaching in business is a period of guided teaching during which the prospective teacher should assume increasing responsibility for the direction of the learning process for a group of students in a junior high, senior high, or community college system while under the direction of a cooperating teacher and a university supervisor. The main purpose of the student teaching experience should be to provide the prospective teacher with actual, direct experience in the classroom, the school, and the community in the role of a teacher. Student teaching should be a natural outgrowth of business methods courses and should provide opportunities for the young teacher to experiment with learnings from methods. The prospective teacher should have an opportunity to engage in all of the major activities of a teacher with appropriate responsibilities and supervision. It is usually desirable for him to teach in both skill and nonskill business subjects and under more than one cooperating teacher. Equally important is that he be assigned less than a "full" teaching load so that he might have "learning" time.

Role of the Cooperating Teacher. Having been approved by the cooperating school system and the training institution, the role of the cooperating teacher is primarily one of leadership in assisting the student teacher to become an effective and self-directive teacher. He, working jointly with the university supervisor and the student teacher, should plan the most effective program possible for the student teacher. Care should be taken however, to develop these plans remembering the cooperating teacher's primary responsibility is to the students in his classes. The cooperating teacher, in conjunction with the university supervisor, should help the student teacher develop sufficient competency to assume direction of all classroom activities with reasonable skill, develop confidence and poise in working with students, understand that imagination and creativity are necessary elements of effective teaching, and realize he is in a profession where learning never ceases. The cooperating teacher should be fully apprised of the student teacher's educational background including competence which he has demonstrated in business methods classes and other preparatory courses.

The most effective cooperating teacher attempts to guide student teachers in the following ways:

1. By acquainting the student teacher with the particular secondary school or community college and the community. Upon arrival of the student teacher, the cooperating teacher introduces him to his classes, and arrangements are made for him to meet as many members of the faculty, administration, and staff as is feasible. The philosophy, policies, and traditions of the school are explained as well as class schedules and procedures. He is given the opportunity to become familiar with available instructional materials and supplies.
2. By providing experiences which insure a successful beginning. Gradual induction into the various activities concerned with teaching is essential. A variety of activities which the student teacher can perform and which help to make the first few days interesting include taking roll, issuing permit slips, checking and recording quizzes, caring for the physical conditions of the room, making assignments, contributing to class discussions, working with individuals or small groups, and observing the cooperating teacher in action. These activities are designed to prepare the student teacher for responsible teaching. The preparation of the initial instructional plan is a cooperative effort between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher. Lesson plans should be carefully examined throughout the student teaching experience prior to the teaching of the material.
3. By demonstrating effective methods and principles of teaching. The cooperating teacher uses a variety of techniques in the classroom and attempts in conference with the student teacher to explain why a particular method was used in a given situation. It should be made clear to the student teacher that a good teacher is flexible, adjusting to the ever-chanigng atmosphere of a classroom. This responsibility of the cooperating teacher is challenging since it forces the cooperating teacher to do his best possible teaching and to review critically his performance for the benefit of the student teacher.
4. By assisting the student teacher in developing a workable philosophy of teaching. Most of this philosophy is achieved as an accumulation of all the experiences which occur during the student teaching period, but is not limited to his contacts with his classes and his cooperating teacher. The student teacher needs to observe and study other teachers in their classrooms, and

he should be provided with current literature concerning his chosen profession.

5. By helping the student teacher evaluate his own growth as a person and as a prospective teacher. The student should be aided in identifying his strengths as well as his weaknesses as a teacher and a person. Good evaluation includes recognizing personal characteristics. The most effective evaluation is immediate and continuous and is supplemented by periodic written progress reports. Evaluation enables the student teacher to locate his difficulties and helps him plan for improvement. Video taping an occasional lesson permits the student teacher to see himself as others view him and thus constitutes the best device for self-appraisal now available.

Perhaps cooperating teachers are the most important persons in the business teacher education program because they are in a position to exert the greatest influence in the development of the student teacher. They have the best opportunity to diagnose deficiencies in scholarship, in social competencies, and in the understanding of pupils. They are on the scene and can write observational comments or can confer immediately. Student teachers want and need candid criticism, both positive and negative.

The most effective cooperating teachers encourage and challenge student teachers and aid them in their self-evaluation. Because of this close association the student teacher develops into an efficient business teacher in much less time.

The Role of The University Supervisor. It is the responsibility of the university supervisor to observe the performance of the student teacher. Observational visits are usually made semimonthly and are for the purpose of giving assistance rather than finding fault. After observing the student teacher at work, the supervisor meets with the student and discusses his performance in a friendly but constructive manner. Suggestions should be offered that will enable the student to progress in his teaching assignment. Before observing a presentation by the student teacher, the university supervisor will determine from the cooperating teacher whether satisfactory progress is being made, and whether there are any problems that he needs to call to the attention of the student in the post-observational conference. Most student teachers want to know how they are doing, and the supervisor should be tactful but candid in his discussion with the beginning teacher. The responsibility of the university supervisor also extends to being the liaison between the cooperating school and the university. An important part of this responsibility is supplying the cooperating teachers with a written statement of policy or a handbook which can serve as a guide for the direction of the student teaching experiences. Guidelines are also available from the State Teacher Certification Board, Springfield, Illinois.

Teaching Internships. Nichols defines internship as "a structured educational program in which an individual receives financial remuneration while serving in preparation for independent performance of duty."[1] The internship plan, long employed successfully in the educational preparation of physicians, attorneys, accountants, and school administrators is being increasingly adapted to teacher education programs.

A teacher intern typically is accorded professional status and assumes full responsibility for a limited number of classes throughout the semester. He works under the supervision of an experienced teacher, is guided by a college supervisor who makes regular visits, receives payment for his services to the local school, and is granted college credit for the internship experience.

Proponents of the internship plan emphasize the following benefits which accrue to the intern teacher from a relatively long-term assignment.[2]

(1) Opportunity to observe and adjust to growth and changes in study.

(2) Chance to make personal adjustment in motivation, attitudes, and emotions.

(3) Opportunity to participate more fully in work of the school community including: homerooms, PTA and faculty meetings, study halls, institutes, and workshops.

The entire professional sequence (including student teaching) as well as state certification requirements are currently under study by national and state groups. The decade of the 1970's may produce new, entirely different patterns.

IN-SERVICE BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION

The idea that there is a need for continuation of supervision, self-analysis, evaluation, and some sort of objective of teaching effectiveness is often an anathema for many teachers on the job in the early years of paid performance. On the other hand, some teachers new in teaching positions who have come from preparation which included adequate preservice methods and techniques involving them in their own evaluation of classroom adequacy will expect an in-service program to continue helping them improve their teaching skills and attitudes. The dilemma is rather obvious. "New" teachers are frequently plagued—either because their preservice preparation was of little value in relation to classroom reality, or they find themselves in schools which have frugal or no practical programs for in-service aid toward professional growth on the several levels needed, which might range from classroom discipline problems to becoming a part of the teacher team involved in making curriculum recommendations and decisions.

---

[1] Charles W. Nichols, "Internships for Prospective Vocational Teachers," *National Business Education Quarterly* XXXVIII (Winter, 1969), page 7.

[2] Rodney H. Johnson and William Mitchell, "Teacher Internship or Student Teaching?" *National Business Education Quarterly* XXXVIII (Winter, 1969), page 36.

In-service education is an absolute necessity if teachers expect to "grow on the job" with some sort of consistent regularity and with observable results in improved classroom and in-school teaching behavior. This is not to be confused with the traditional assumption that attaining higher degrees and/or taking evening or summer courses automatically improves teaching attitudes, methods, and techniques.

The in-service or on-the-job program of today must be a total program which embraces all facets of teaching and the so-called teaching-learning transaction. Literature in the field of education shows few schools which have made all-encompassing attempts to be concerned with such a task. While the relatively new or revived concept of "accountability" has touched on a number of the weaknesses of supervision as well as self-evaluation in the teaching profession, the term "to be accountable" is most frequently a matter of systems analysis, management by behavioral objectives, and performance contracting. Curiously, considering the student's rebellions against the dehumanization of their schooling, the "accountability experts" seem loathe to tackle modification of behavior relating to assisting learners in clarifying the assumptions (often abstract and close to the spiritual) by which they wish to live.[3]

The subject content of Business Education tends to be in the realm of the objective to the extent that in-service can easily become a matter of checking the teacher's effectiveness by equating it with technological efficiency. How well do students do on tests relating to objective performance? There is a place for this type of checking, but certainly a "good" teacher is more than one who does an acceptable job of getting the majority of class members to perform on a high level, or acceptably high level, where performance objectives are concerned.

---

[3] C. A. Bowers. "Accountability from a Humanist Point of View." *The Education Forum*, Vol. XXXV, No. 2, May, 1971, pp. 479-486.

It should be unnecessary to dwell here on the continuation of preservice preparation methods and techniques that ought to be a part of the teacher's opportunity to improve on the job. The use of self-evaluation instruments, pupil "brickbats and bouquets", questionnaires, the use of audio and visual technology to show the teacher what is really going on in the classroom, classroom visitation by supervisors, and regular conferences designed to work out a performance profile based on all the evidence gathered in all the various ways possible should all be included.

It seems that one common concept of "improvement of teaching" is related to the attainment of higher degrees and the accumulating of graduate school credits, as well as having been rated "excellent" or "superior" by those to whom the teacher is responsible. There is certainly nothing wrong with acquiring more credits although, hopefully, teachers will also consider (and Boards of Education will accept) course credits outside their field of specialization. Also, rating teachers on some sort of scale is probably inevitable if salary schedules are to be retained. However, such supervisor ratings are not necessarily helpful in improving teacher performance unless they are part of a carefully organized and extensive evaluation system incorporating a variety of methods and techniques which are becoming more and more common in preservice teacher preparation.

Teachers, because they are humans, will grow in some way or other throughout their teaching careers. The question is whether the growth is toward greater all-around competency or not. Part of the so-called growth is certainly up to the teacher and should be planned personally, controlled carefully, and evaluated. Other factors which influence on-the-job improvement but are less within the realm of teacher planning and control are: the school district, the school, the building, the administrative personnel, the curriculum, the teacher's colleagues, in and out of the particular department of specialization, and, the pupils, their parents, and the community. About all the individual teacher can do is to take advantage of every possible in-service opportunity that exists and to work within faculty groups and professional teacher organizations to see that everything is done to secure a comprehensive, realistic, producing program of in-service.

Some suggestions for professional growth and improvement of teaching on-the-job are:

I. PRIMARILY TEACHER-PLANNED AND ORGANIZED

   A. Continuing Mastery of Content
      1. Planned reading program
      2. Membership in professional organizations in the subject field
      3. Deep involvement in departmental attempts to upgrade courses
      4. Conferences and conventions

   B. Widening Grasp of General Knowledge
      1. Planned reading program
      2. Service on general faculty committees
      3. Service on general professional organization committees
      4. Visitation in other departments in own and other schools
      5. Travel
      6. Conferences with community leaders, parents, colleagues, pupils—out of school

   C. Keeping Abreast of the New in Methods and Techniques
      1. Planned reading program with help of school specialists
         a. audiovisual
         b. counselors
         c. department supervisors
         d. others
      2. Experimentation in own classroom
      3. Consultations with teachers, administrators, and supervisors concerning new ideas
      4. In-depth committee involvement in faculty innovation attempts
      5. Volunteer involvement in professional organization studies of methods and techniques
      6. School visitations

   D. Maintaining Morale and Reinforcing Teaching Ego
      1. Publicize honors received by your pupils
      2. Volunteer descriptions of innovative practices for school paper, bulletin to parents, local newspaper
      3. File written records of all personal recognition: offices elected to, honors, awards, etc.
      4. Invite supervisors and administrators to see projects you believe to be well done

5. Volunteer to do demonstration teaching
6. Keep records of information received from successful former students

II. DISTRICT AND SCHOOL PLANNED AND ORGANIZED IN-SERVICE OPPORTUNITIES

A. Departmental Meetings
   1. Be a good listener
   2. Accept your share of the monotonous details that have to be attended to
   3. Keep a positive attitude toward your immediate supervisor
   4. Limit your remarks to that which is relevant
   5. Refrain from criticizing other teachers; stay with issues
   6. Ask for supervision followed by conferences

B. Faculty Meetings
   1. Be on time
   2. Be prepared to take notes
   3. Give courteous attention (Don't take a book to read or paper to correct!)
   4. Volunteer your considered opinion when given an opportunity
   5. If asked to vote on a question, do your own thinking
   6. If a topic interests you especially, meet with administrators to pursue your interest
   7. Suggest topics for faculty meetings if you feel important matters are being neglected
   8. Speak up in meetings rather than to engage in complaints which change or add nothing

Any teacher who enters the profession dedicated to achieving a high level of excellence commits himself to a continuing evaluation and re-evaluation of the means and ends around which he has organized teaching efforts. This assumes that where an in-service program exists in some formal fashion, it is used with eagerness in the hope for the improvement of teaching. It also assumes that where no formal program of in-service activities exists, the career teacher uses every opportunity that can be found to help in the identification, definition, and attack on teaching problems. Extensive, comprehensive in-service staff development systems are uncommon in the public schools. This fact requires that individual teachers ask for help from people who are in the schools, presumably, to help them succeed — by correcting deficiencies in "survival skills" and functional knowledge and guiding and retraining the teaching staff to cope with inevitable change.

THE IMAGE OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Business education is an area, in both its vocational and personal aspects, in which the results are readily apparent and the success of its graduates is immediate and measurable. The number of high school graduates who enter the business world each year or who pursue further work at private business schools, junior colleges, colleges or universities is increasing yearly, a testimony to the values of the programs.

The image of business education in a high school is best projected through the combined efforts of the chairman and the staff members. Regular departmental meetings, including on occasion members from administration and other academic and vocational departments, will bring about unified efforts and direction.

A well-equipped department, effectively organized and attractively decorated, provides the atmosphere in which students can conduct their learning experiences while absorbing a business oriented aura. The effect of the setting does much to induce the desired attitudes and behavior which are so important in training graduates for business careers.

The personal appearance of the business staff members, as reflected in their dress, speech, and manner, also serves to communicate to the school community the positive impression of a professional team dedicated to excellence in education.

The image projected by the business department through its contacts with the students, the counseling staff, the faculty, administrators, and noncertificated personnel is a vital factor in the success of the business education programs.

The Business Teacher

The business teacher is more than a classroom teacher; he is a member of a team that is jointly responsible for promoting the purposes of business education within the school and community. His efforts in this promotion can be strengthened by:

(1) Work-experience in the community.

(2) Membership and service in community clubs and organizations.

(3) Publicity and public relations activities.

(4) Active membership in area, state, and national professional organizations.

(5) Involvement in such services as job-placement, career programs, adult education, and advisory committees.

The Department Chairman

One of the most important duties of a department chairman is to involve his staff in the previously mentioned activities by his own example and by assistance and encouragement. The department chairman's attitude to and relationship with various segments of the school and community is reflected by his staff. It is from the chairman that the staff receive impressions and guidance in its contact with students, parents, and school personnel. He must, therefore, set the standard of excellence that he wishes the teacher to emulate. In doing so, his mien must suggest to them his total commitment to their welfare and progress.

Above all, the creation of a positive image for business education is founded on a positive image of the individuals whose obligation it is to further the cause of the profession.

ILLINOIS BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Board Officers and Members 1969, 1970, 1971

Mrs. Maurine Barra
Pekin High School East
Pekin

Miss Wilma Bricker
Alton Sr. High School
Alton

Miss Shirley Clausen
Parkland College
Champaign

Dr. George K. Cooper
President, 1970-71
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston

Mr. Jack C. Curless
President, 1968-69
Thornton Twp. High School
Harvey

Mrs. Rose Anne Davis
Roxana High School
Roxana

Mr. Homer F. Ely
Waukegan High School
Waukegan

Miss Mary Lou Focht
John Hersey High School
Arlington Heights

Mrs. Helen Gehring
Moline High School
Moline

Mrs. Lucille Ireland
Greenville High School
Greenville

Mr. Ken Keeling
President, 1969-70
Morton East High School
Cicero

Mrs. Pauline Langer
Carrollton High School
Carrollton

Mr. Writesman Long
Secretary, 1970-71
Kankakee Community
College
Kankakee

Dr. Ross E. Lowe
Western Illinois University
Macomb

Mrs. Mary Ann Lynn
Treasurer, 1970-71
University High School, ISU
Normal

Mr. John A. Majernik
Belvidere High School
Belvidere

Mr. Paul McInturff
John A. Logan College
Carterville

Mr. Charles C. Mullin
Monmouth High School
Monmouth

Mrs. Mary O'Neal
Civic Memorial High School
Bethalto

Mr. Paul M. Pair
Control Data Institute
Chicago

Mr. Henry R. Petryk
Metropolitan Business School
Chicago

Dr. Eileen Schutte
Vice President, 1970-71
Amundsen-Mayfair Junior
College
Chicago

Mrs. Susie M. Schwabe
LaGrove High School
Farina

Mr. Robert Stickler
Proviso East High School
Maywood

Mr. Richard Trower
Danville Junior College
Danville

PARTICIPANTS IN PLANNING SESSIONS

The following Illinois educators are recognized for their suggestions in planning the content of this bulletin:

Madhav Prashad Adhikary, National Vocational Training Center, Katmendie, Nepal
Marcia Anderson, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Marvin Barth, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Dennis E. Bauer, Western Illinois University, Macomb
H. B. Bauernfeind, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Howard P. Beecher, Belleville High School West, Belleville
Helen Benjamin, Illinois State University, Normal
Dale Best, Tuscola High School, Tuscola
Martha Bickley, Illinois State University, Normal
Betty Biggs, Mattoon High School, Mattoon

Kay Boyer, Tuscola High School, Tuscola
Gloria Bringes, Illinois State University, Normal
Betty Browning, Cumberland High School, Toledo
Rose Ann Bryce, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Van A. Buboltz, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Dorothy Buerkle, Alton Senior High School, Alton
Eloise Buffenmeyer, Charleston High School, Charleston
Dixie Burrell, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Richard Cambridge, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Betty Campbell, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Dayton Chase, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Roger Claar, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
John Clow, Illinois State University, Normal
Carrie Conley, Shawnee Community College, Shawnee
George Cooper, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Darrell L. Cozad, Wood River High School, Wood River
Doris Crank, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Robert L. Cummins, Southeastern Illinois University, Harrisburg
Rose Ann Davis, Roxana High School, Roxana
Lee Dohleman, Illinois State University, Normal
Franklin Dye, Chicago State College, Chicago
Thomas Elliott, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Mary Lou Epperson, Mattoon High School, Mattoon
Pattie Jo Fenn, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Robert L. Ferguson, Western Illinois University, Macomb
John Frew, Belleville Hign School East, Belleville
Tom Garman, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Jean Grever, Illinois State University, Normal
E. Carl Hall, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
John Hall, Illinois State University, Normal
E. Edward Harris, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Gene Houser, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Marjorie Hudson, Carbondale Community High School, Carbondale
Wilma Hunter, Southeastern Illinois College, Harrisburg
Donette Jackson, Illinois State University, Normal
Harry Jacobson, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Al Kaisershat, Illinois State University, Normal
Noreen Kurth, University Lab School, Illinois State University, Normal
Willa Lane, Charleston High School, Charleston
Marge Lanman, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Vaughnie J. Lindsay, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Mary Ann Lynn, University Lab School, Illinois State University, Normal
Lyle Maxwell, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb

Phyllis Milam, Mattoon High School, Mattoon
Robert J. Motley, Western Illinois University, Macomb
Jack Murry, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Lita Padgett, Marion Senior High School, Marion
Lenore Passmore, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Pat Patsloff, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Albert Pender, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Warren Perry, Illinois State University, Normal
Maxine Pyle, Johnston City High School, Johnston
Harves Rahe, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
R. John Reynolds, Vocational Technical Institute, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
John Rich, Illinois State University, Normal
Cass Richardson, Western Illinois University, Macomb
Chuck Ridenour, Bloomington High School, Bloomington
Robert Schultheis, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Roy Sheppard, Principal, Mattoon High School, Mattoon
Robert Sullivan, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Jan Sutherland, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston
Mary Vaughn, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Ronald L. Vaughn, Western Illinois University, Macomb
Ronald Wade, Vocational Technical Institute, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Lewis E. Wall, Western Illinois University, Macomb
Ralph Wray, Illinois State University, Normal